WHY I AM NOT GOING TO THE MOON, By Joseph Wood Krutch

Saturday Review

November 20, 1965 25¢

SR833225 309-494DEF503
BERTA HAMILTON
RD-1
NEWFANE VERMONT

Case Institute engineer with a vacuum chamber (See Education)

EDUCATION

INVENTING AN EDUCATION FOR ENGINEERS

By T. Keith Glennan

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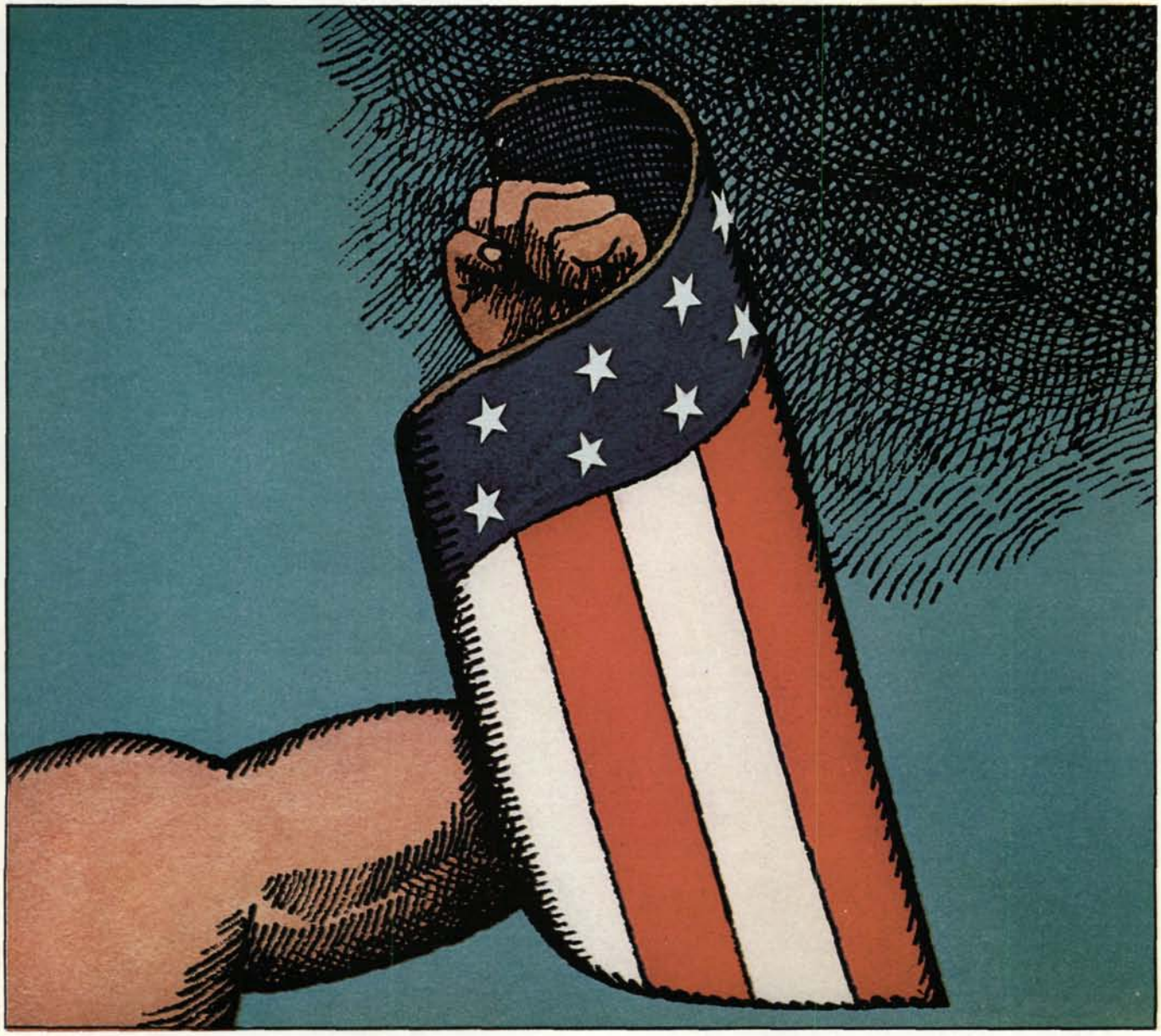
SECURITY



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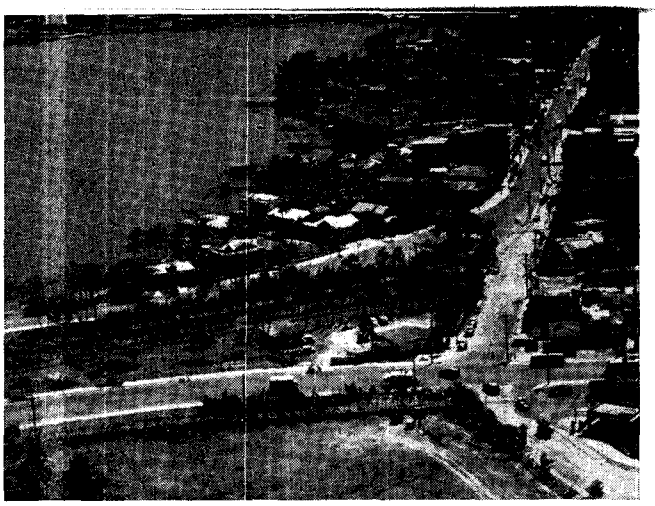

1948 Condado and Santurce sections of San Juan—a jigsaw of slums, inadequate roads and bad planning.

1965 The same sections. Notice the modern hotels, offices and highways. Even the waterfront has been filled and trimmed. For details of further developments, see below.

Progress report to U.S. industry:

Look what's happened to San Juan since Puerto Rico became a U.S. Commonwealth

IF YOU haven't been to Puerto Rico in the past few years, you're in for a pleasant surprise the next time you go there.

San Juan is being reborn.

Under the island's Commonwealth status, tourism and industry are growing at a phenomenal rate. And so is Puerto Rico's capital city. Whole sections of San Juan are being leveled, remodeled and rebuilt according to a grand design.

Hato Rey, once a congested suburb of aging homes and narrow streets, is turning into the "Wall Street" of the Caribbean. During the next twenty years, over a billion dollars are expected to be invested in construction in this area alone.

Santurce, the section at the right in our photographs, will be remodeled with malls, plazas, sidewalk cafés, apartments soaring along canals, and superblocks – self-sustained communities with homes, shops and schools.

Old San Juan is not losing its romantic soul in the midst of this progress. On the contrary, the centuries-old town houses of the Conquistadores are carefully being *restored*. Soon the streets of Old San Juan will be a reflection of 18th-century Spain.

Suburban San Juan is growing almost as fast as the city itself. Projects such as Levittown de Puerto Rico are providing planned middle-income homes. There are modern shopping centers where you'll find Spanish names alongside of familiar names like Sears, Grand Union and Woolworth's.

Now take another look at the photographs above.

If they show you the kind of thriving progress you would like to be a part of, perhaps you should consider Puerto Rico as a site for your plant.

Over 450 U.S. manufacturers already have plants there.

This is one of a series of reports to U.S. industry on the economic development of the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico. Manufacturers: write for information on productivity, special incentives and profits. Commonwealth of Puerto Rico, Dept.C6B,666 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y. 10019.

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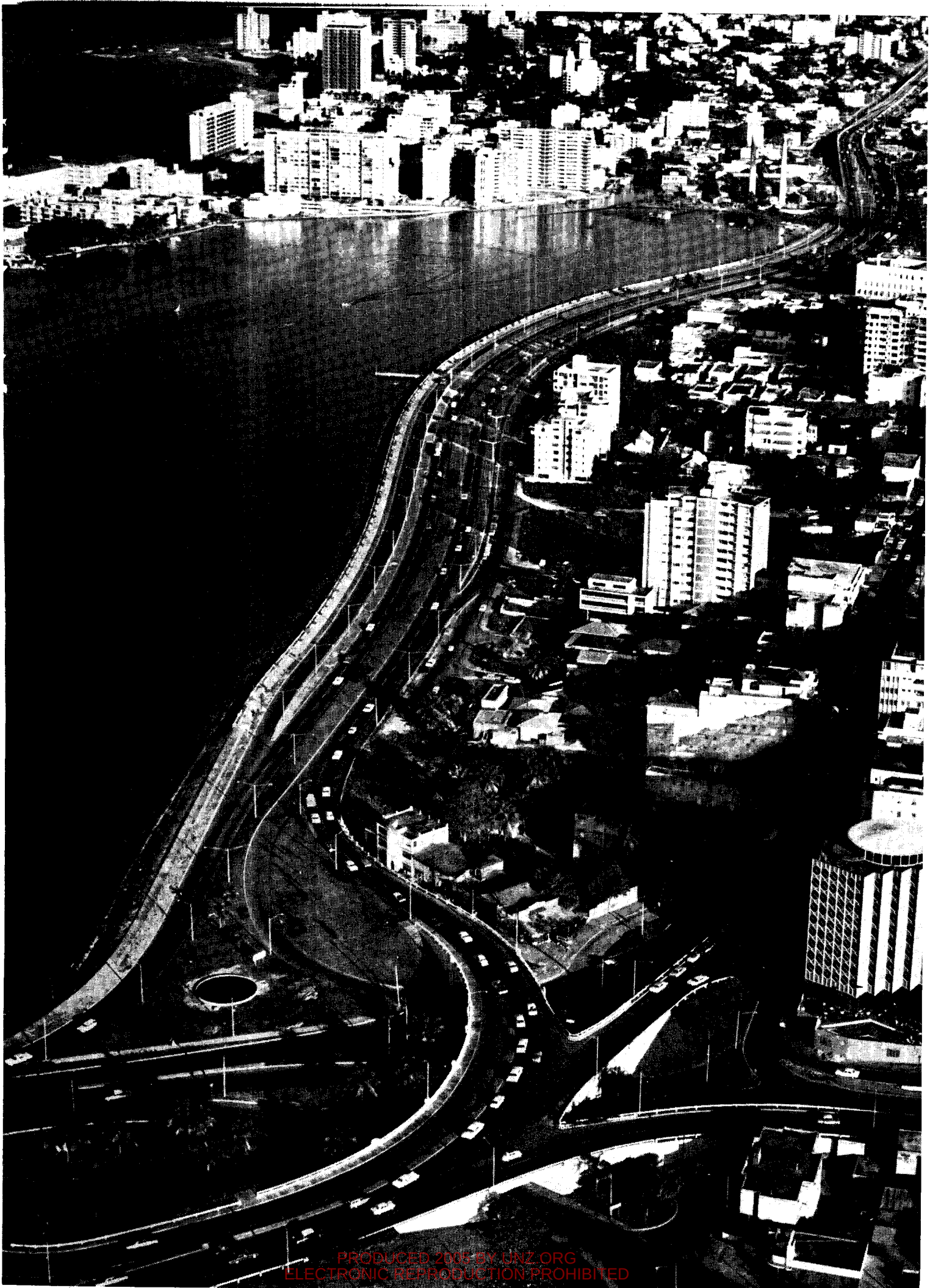

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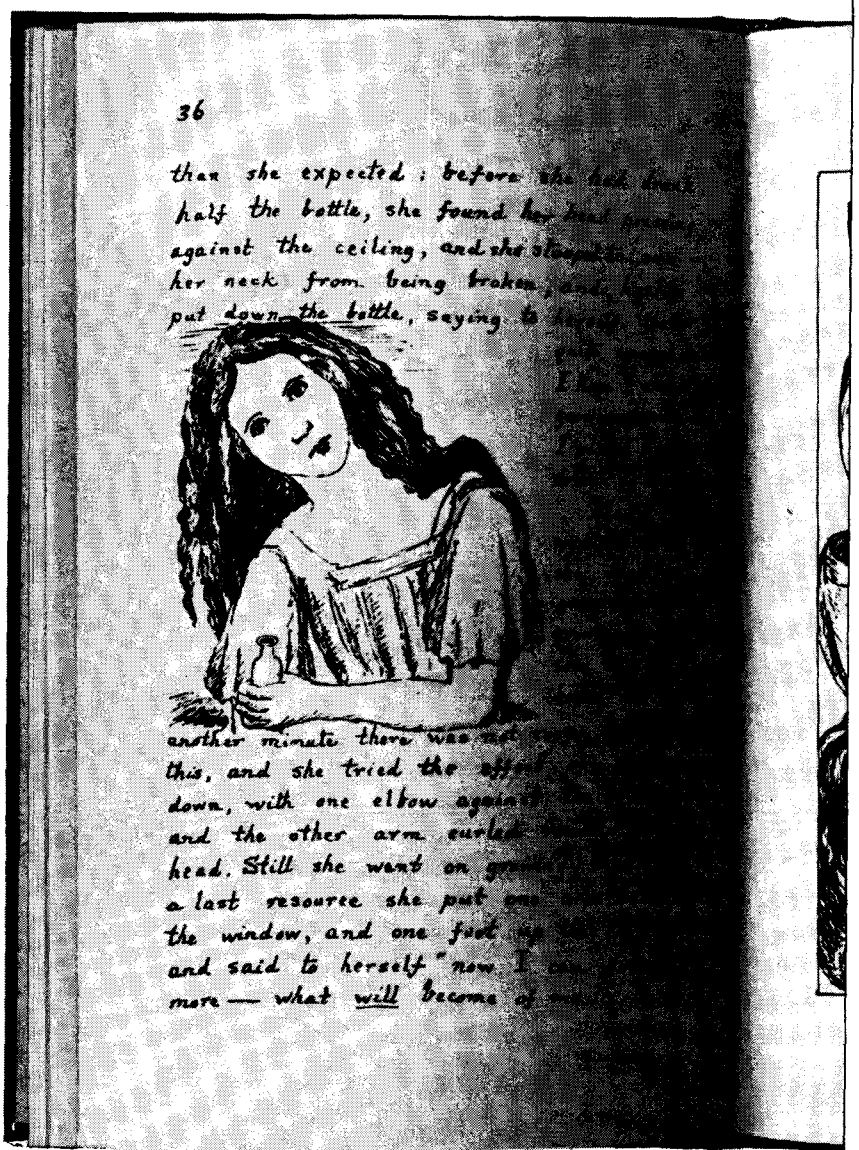
Stumped for a really original Christmas gift?

This page is from the original manuscript of "Alice's Adventures under Ground." Lewis Carroll printed every word by hand. He drew every picture himself. You can get an exact reproduction of the original manuscript for only $4.95.


36
than she expected ; before she had drunk
half the bottle, she found her head pressing
against the ceiling, and she stooped to save
her neck from being broken, and hastily
put down the bottle, saying to herself
another minute there was not room
this, and she tried the effect
down, with one elbow against
and the other arm curled
head. Still she went on growing
a last resource she put one
the window, and one foot up
and said to herself "now I
more — what will become of

That's a pretty good deal, considering the original manuscript which is on display in the British Museum is worth $50,000.

Lewis Carroll wrote "Alice's Adventures under Ground" as a Christmas gift for the daughter of a friend. Later, as "Alice in Wonderland," this book became one of the most popular books ever written.

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November 20, 1965

SR: Ideas

29 Why I Am Not Going to the Moon, by Joseph Wood Krutch

32 Vietnam and U.S. Policy Continuity: An Editorial

SR: Education

72 Inventing an Education for Engineers, by T. Keith Glennan

75 The Need for Radical Reform, by Harold Taylor

80 Financing Higher Education, by Humphrey Doermann

SR: Books

35 Literary Horizons, by Granville Hicks

35 Index of books reviewed

SR: Departments

8 Phoenix Nest, by Martin Levin

16 Trade Winds, by Jerome Beatty, Jr.

20 Manner of Speaking, by John Ciardi

24 Top of My Head, by Goodman Ace

33 Letters to the Editor

36 Literary Crypt

46 Literary I.Q.

55 *SR* Goes to the Movies, by Hollis Alpert reviews *Juliet of the Spirits*

50 Booked for Travel: Horace Sutton in Macao

62 Broadway Postscript: Henry Hewes on resident theater companies

64 Music to My Ears: Irving Kolodin on the Met National Company

66 As Others See Us, by James F. Fixx

100 Kingsley Double-Crostic No. 1650

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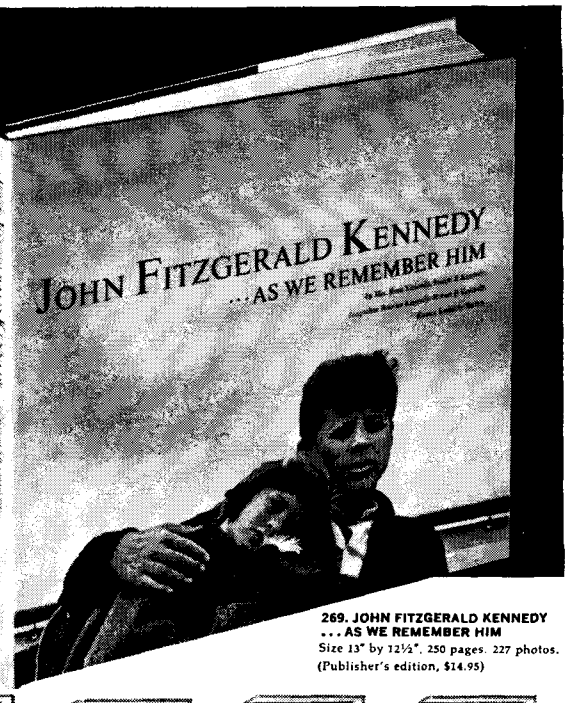

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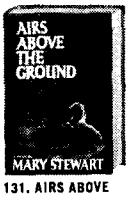

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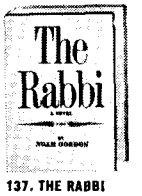

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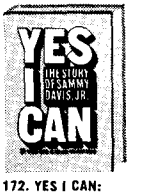

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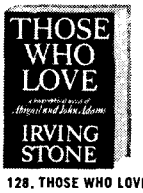

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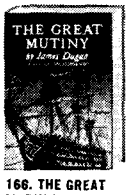

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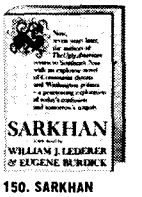

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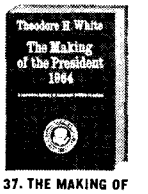

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Recently, for example, Guild members were offered new books such as *The Making of the President 1964* for $3.50 instead of $6.95 in the publisher's edition; *Airs Above the Ground*, for $2.95 instead of $4.95. These books were described before publication in the Guild's free monthly *Preview*. Members who wanted them received them immediately upon publication.

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New Look

Edited by Martin Levin

The Small Moment

Man's grief and song
Last not long.
And all that passion can,
Has no long span.
Each cry and kiss
No more than this:
That from the nearest star
The light at breathless speed
Gets not so far
Across the black abyss
As a worm's crawl, before all's over—
The passion spent, and the quenched need,
The song sung, and the forgotten lover.

—Robert Nathan.

Of Geometric Prints, Tin Plates, and Ventilation

THE ubiquity of op art patterns in fall clothes and the success of the Mondrian print, that marriage of art and *haute couture*, have encouraged me to open a dress salon featuring designs inspired by famous artists. However, I have planned my designs so that they will not be as omnipresent as the white, black, and red Mondrians; my philosophy of high fashion is that exclusiveness makes for success. I am therefore trying to finalize contracts with three artists (or their estates) to produce a line of clothes which will be *truly* exclusive, mainly because of the difficulties of fitting and producing the dresses.

As soon as I can conclude a deal with the estate of Jackson Pollock, I intend to adapt his textured abstract *Number 27*. Because few women can or will endure the ordeal of being fitted for the Pollock dress—being dripped upon and splattered with aluminum paint and being encrusted with commercial enamel—the dress, unlike the Mondrian best-seller, will not suffer from overexposure, proliferation, or escalation.

Neither will my Andy Warhol creation. As I envision it, Warhol's contribution will be the world's first tin plate dress, a chic little nothing in a Campbell's Tomato Soup print. Since this number will require the wearer to be welded into it, few women will be willing to endure the welding flashes and the journey to a tinsmith shop which are part of the fitting procedure. One compensation, however, is that the first woman to be fitted for this dress will be the heroine of an underground movie; the stand-out scene will be the one in which the flashing around the neck, armpits, and knees are welded in place. It will be ultra-exclusive and will sharply reduce one of the attendant worries of every dress designer; no one will be able to bring out the can-dress in $99.95, $39.95, or $12.95 copies.

The Warhol and Pollock dresses will be chic and rare, but the triumph of my fall line is sure to be my Henry Moore look. I soon hope to have a franchise from the British sculptor to simulate his 1938 *Recumbent Figure*, that reclining nude which features an abscess in place of a thorax. *Recumbent Figure* for the 1965 line will be translated into a body stocking. Now, a body stocking is not difficult to fit; but to accurately imitate Moore's ventilated look, the wearer will have to submit to major surgery. All who want the Moore look will have to have a neat cavern excavated somewhere above the navel and below the bosom. In past years women have had toes removed so their feet could fit into pointed shoes, and I'm sure a few aspirants to the Ten Best-Dressed List will cheerfully undergo the extensive structural alterations needed for the Moore look.

Art will influence high fashion in 1966, too. Fashion, I believe, will return to the classical Greek period for inspiration. The dress of my next year's show will exploit the Venus de Milo look; and because of the sacrifices necessary to achieve this unique style, it, too, will be largely unimitated. Those daring ladies of this season who went for the Henry Moore look may not be able to stomach the Venus look, but the ladies who affected the Warhol-tomato can look will be able to achieve the true de Milo look—especially if they are a little careless with the tin shears when discarding their wardrobe.

—Rudolph Spik.

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(someone might pour it on the cornflakes!)

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(have the genius to chill it)

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Waiteling

I RECENTLY celebrated my fortieth birthday anniversary by hauling off and slugging my father-in-law. He's really a decent sort, but he made one mistake. He said, "Waitel you're as old as . . ." He never got to finish because that's when I let him have it.

I'm sorry that he had to be the first but I have been waiteling almost all of my forty years to do exactly what I did. I consider it a major achievement that

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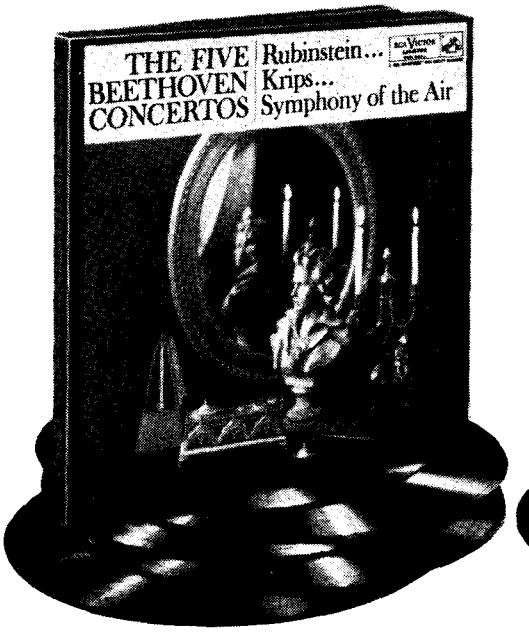

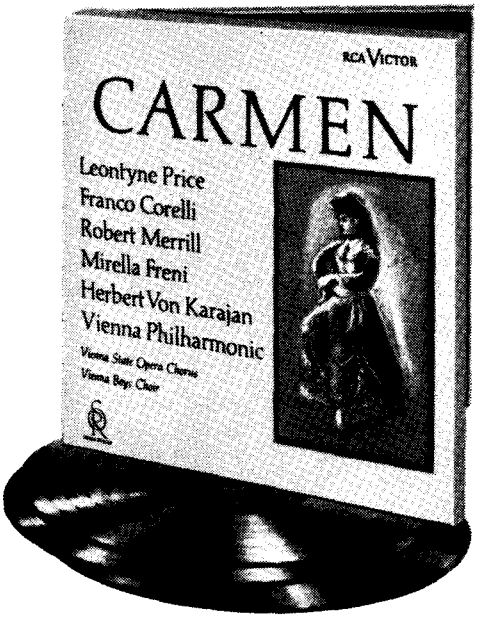

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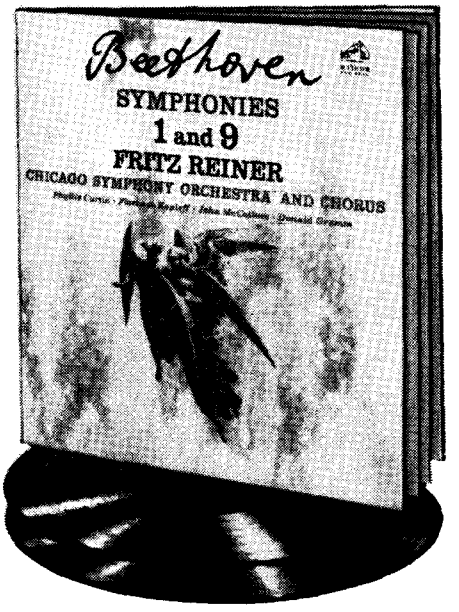

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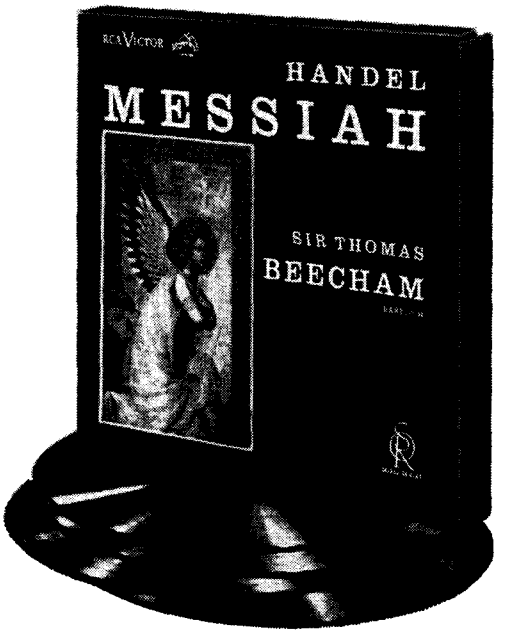

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I grew to be four, let alone forty. There was always a nurse hovering over me as a child warning me to behave or "Waitel I tell your mother." With Mother it was always "Waitel your father comes home!" Father's answer to me was "Waitel they get him in school." Well, they got me in school, without major incident, but I soon learned that grade school is only a preliminary to a whole faculty saying, "Young man, waitel you get to high school!" In high school it was "Waitel you try to get into college, you'll see." I saw so well that I waiteled a very short time in my freshman year before the draft board sent for me. What I remember most vividly was a local used-furniture dealer meeting me behind those closed doors screaming about snobs and soft, rich kids and college "and waitel the Army makes a man out of this jerk." I spent three years waiteling through fourteen states ("Waitel you get stationed in Georgia." I waiteled.), nine foreign countries, and every noncommissioned grade of the United States Army only to be met by some sneering civilian at the Fort Dix Separation Center who bellowed, "Waitel youse guys find out what it's like trying to make a living out there"—pointing, as I recall, in the general direction of the South Jersey cranberry bogs.

With every minor success that I had out there (not the bogs), I soon learned about the most important waitel of them all. Waitel you're married and have to support a wife and family! I waiteled a good, healthy happy thirty-two years and when I finally married the girl worth waiteling for I stood with her in the reception at the country club and the first, the *very* first, guest to come down the line pulled me aside and whispered, knowingly, "Waitel you're married as long as I am." It was neither the place nor the time. I let him go.

The last straw was this. I had happened on a bottle of forty-year-old cognac in France during the war and I was saving it for my fortieth birthday. It was reason enough for my wife to build a surprise party around the whole thing. There were precisely forty guests. By the time I arrived—*surprise!*—her dad had killed the bottle. I sulked my way through a half-dozen choruses of "For He's a Jolly Good Fellow" and as many martinis and then when I was about to cut the cake, the old boy staggered over and said, "Waitel you're as old as . . ."

I ain't waiteling for nobody no more.

—Bob Brugger.

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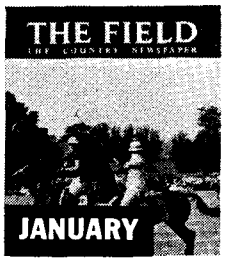

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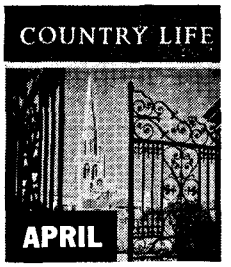

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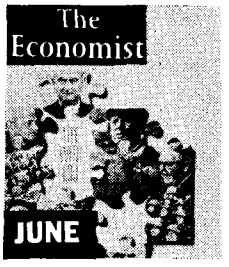

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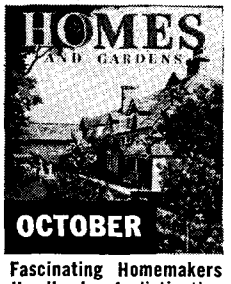

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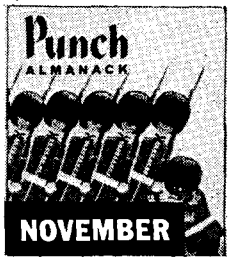

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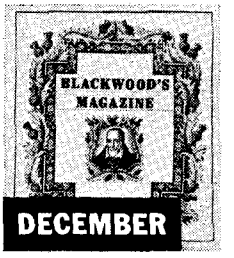

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Trade Winds

I was walking along New York's Forty-fifth Street one balmy afternoon when I paused a moment to glance into the window of Paul Stuart's shop at the

clothes I could not afford to buy. As I turned to move on I saw a man slow down and look at me and veer in my direction.

"Oh, gosh," I thought. "This fellow knows me and is going to speak to me and I haven't the slightest idea who he is or where I've seen him before."

He stopped in front of me and looked at me through dark sunglasses. He was in his fifties, about five feet nine inches tall, clean-shaven, with thin, sandy hair that was turning a distinguished gray at the temples. He wore a blue button-down shirt, regimental tie, a stylish sport jacket, gray flannel slacks, and shiny black loafers. He spoke to me in cultured tones.

"Can you let me have twenty-five cents to get out of town?"

When I had recovered from the shock I asked him why he needed a quarter to get out of town.

"I have to get to the George Washington Bridge and across it into Jersey," he explained.

I was too startled to figure out whether twenty-five cents was the right amount for such a trip, so I remarked that he was awfully well-dressed to be asking for money.

"I am temporarily without a position," he said seriously.

I felt so inferior that I gave him the quarter to bolster my self-confidence and we parted. Such an encounter could not easily be forgotten. Therefore, a couple of weeks later I easily recognized the same fellow on Forty-fourth Street, where he was earnestly talking to a man who had been looking at the displays in the Brooks Brothers window. Then I realized that in a city where everybody has an angle, this guy had his: he was The Gentleman Panhandler. He worked the area where the fancy men's clothes were sold, spotting easy touches who were window-shopping, and disarming his victims with his own sartorial splendor.

From then on I planned revenge. I walked through that district when I could, hoping to run into the chap again. Sure enough, one day I saw him coming down the street. I hurried up to the Brooks Brothers window and watched The Gentleman Panhandler's reflection in the glass. Just as he got to me I wheeled and blurted out:

"Can you let me have a quarter to get out of town? I have to get to the George Washington Bridge and over into New Jersey. I'm out of a job."

I haven't seen him in that part of town since then.

The Broadway Association, a group of businessmen, called two weeks ago for a cleanup of the bums in midtown. What they don't realize is that there are high class bums, like The Gentleman Panhandler. When you see a fellow working Madison Avenue, you can be sure he is better than your average bum. Last spring I stood in front of 488 Madison Avenue talking to an artist

friend who was telling me how much money he was making this year. I was feeling rather cheap.

We finally broke up when we both glanced down the sidewalk and saw a panhandler approaching. The artist went one way and I the other. The bum could not take us both on, but making a quick decision he followed me and made his touch. I was so flattered that he had picked me over the artist that I gave generously. I recently heard a rumor that the artist has had a hard time. I realize now that that experienced panhandler was a fine judge of character and potential, and that's why he is where he is today.

On Vanderbilt Avenue, which is in the same general area as the places The Gentleman Panhandler operated. I ran into The Psychological Panhandler. I've seen him only once, but I'll not forget his skilful handling of the situation. When I shook my head and smiled, turning down his touch, his face suddenly cloud-

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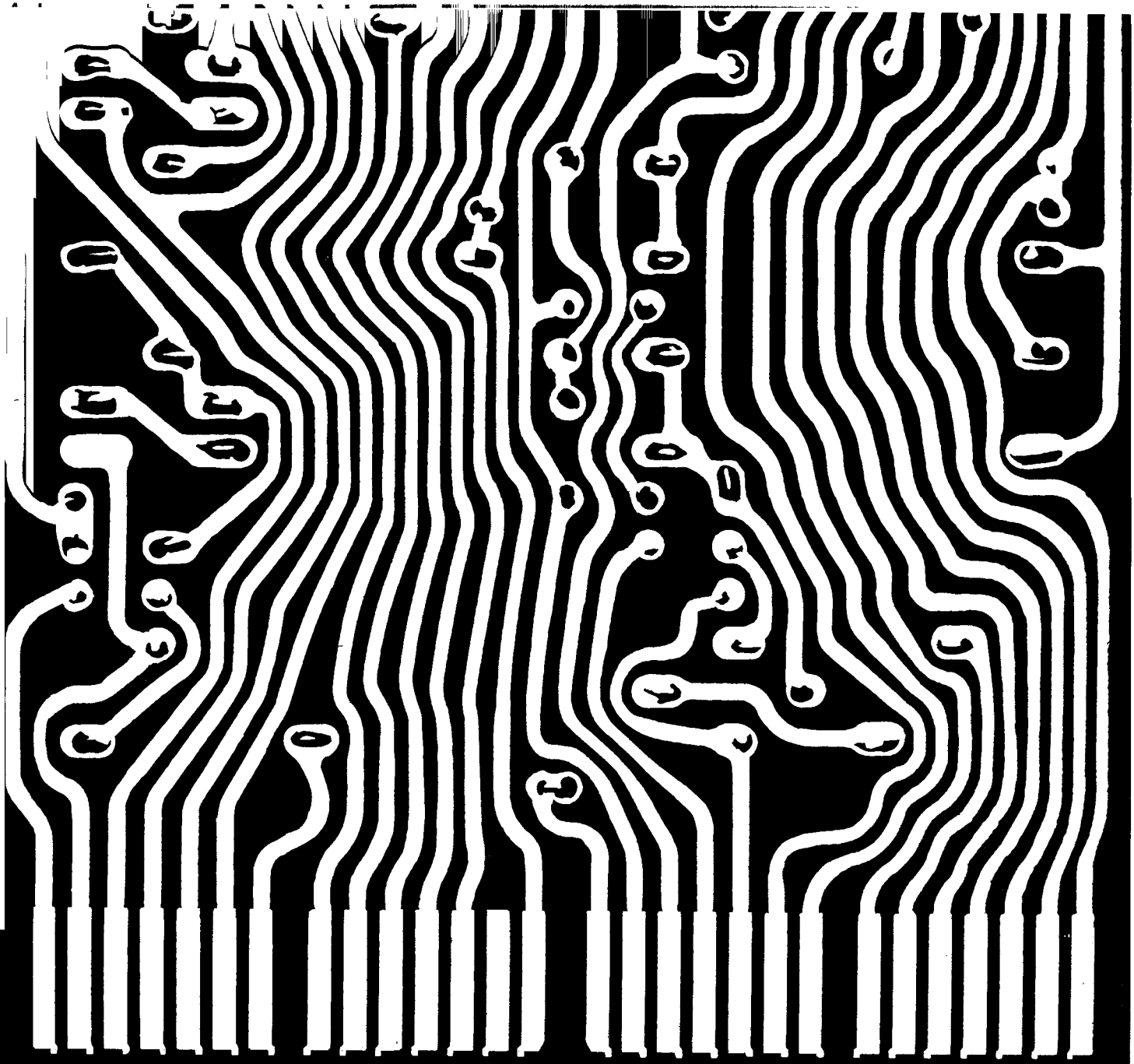

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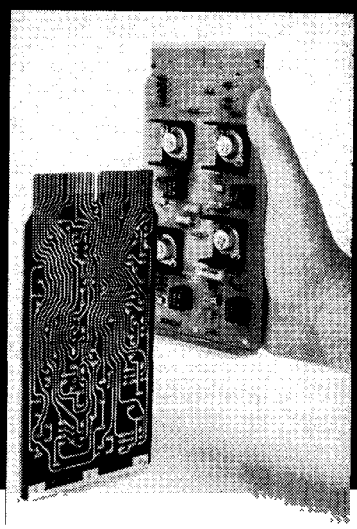

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ed over. He said sadly, "You're laughing at me, sir."

I stopped in my tracks and replied that I was doing no such thing.

"But you grinned when you looked at me." I thought he was going to cry. I felt terrible. I tried to explain.

"But I did not," I said. "I simply smiled because I didn't want to hurt your feelings."

"What do you know about hurt feelings? I can't get a job and I don't have

a place to live. I'm in the merchant marine and you know what that's like today. It's no laughing matter, sir." He took out a big dirty handkerchief and blew his nose. It was a virtuoso performance, and it quickly produced its intended effect—not only on his victim but on passers-by.

People were beginning to stare. I gave him twenty-five cents. Anything to shut him up. For all I know he is this very moment blubbering on the shoulder of some other misguided soul who smiled.

Perhaps the most effective ploy I've encountered is that in which the beggar shows you his money. In Grand Central Station a fellow held out a hand filled with odd change and said to me earnestly, "Look, mister, I've got seventy-six cents. I've lost my wallet. Another two bits and I can get the train back home to New Rochelle."

I made the fatal error of pausing to let it sink in, whereupon he delivered the clincher: "Give me your name and address and I'll send it to you."

I surrendered to him his well-earned quarter and hurried on. He was about fourteen years old, and as a rookie panhandler he showed great promise.

—JEROME BEATTY, JR.

SOLUTION OF LAST WEEK'S KINGSLEY DOUBLE-CROSTIC (NO. 1649)

(HAYDEN) CARRUTH:
NOVEMBER—INDIAN SUMMER
(Suggested by Mr. F. J. Roberts)

The huge frostbank of the North
Leans over these few days.
Sunlight crumbles in haze,
Saffron of smell and color.
And the chickadees hold forth,
Thick in the ruined quince,
Scolding our complex dolor,
Talkative, though long since
We came to a solemn season.

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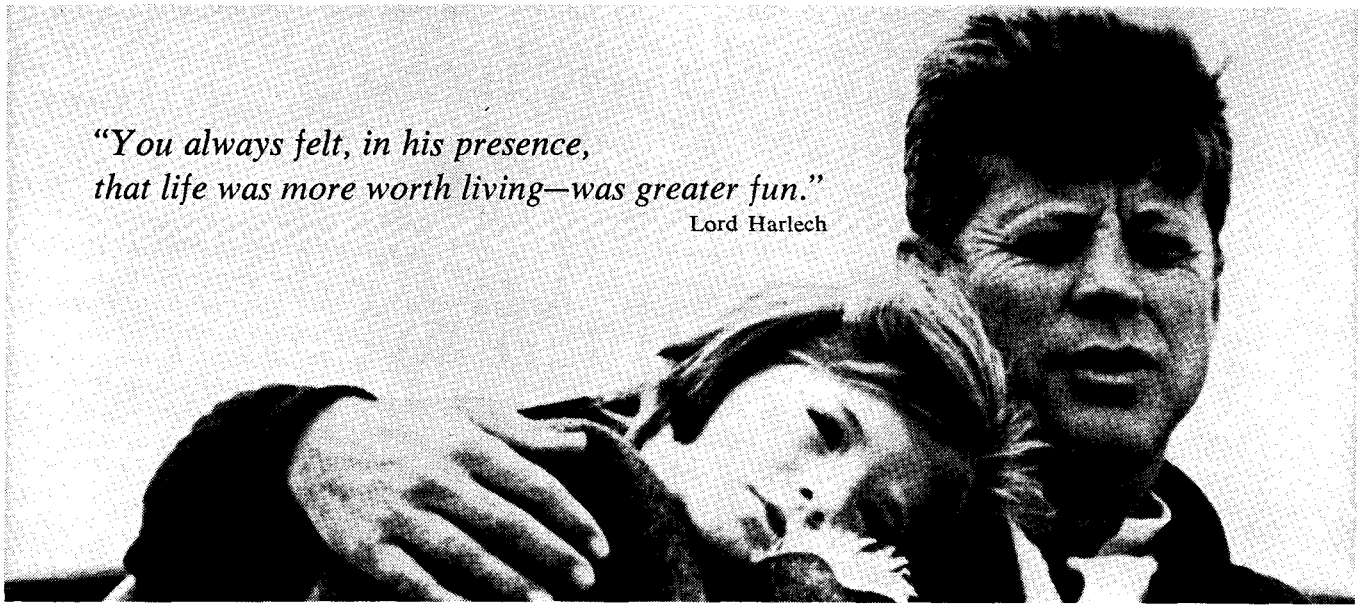

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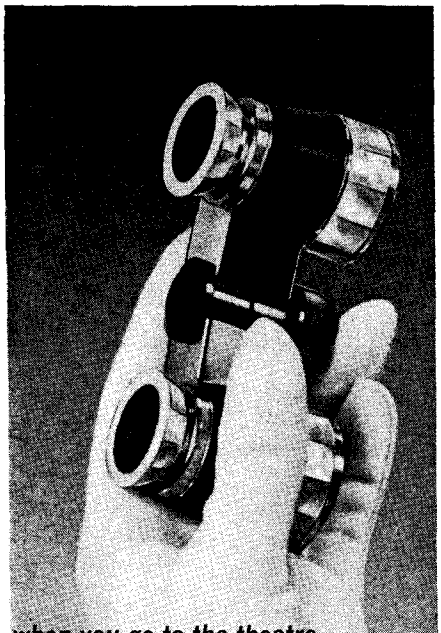
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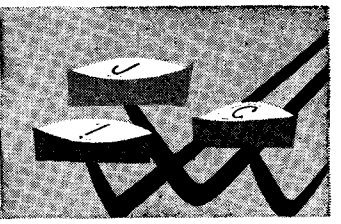

Chrysanthemums: I have just come in from planting chrysanthemums, fourteen full-blooming plants of them. The edges of my porches are covered with their colors, my mood is still full of the tart, sweet odor of chrysanthemums, and there is still a smudge of dirt on my fingers, but let no man mistake me for an honest gardener, for I raise nothing from seed. These are the days of instant flowering. I bought my plants grown and blossomed from a mild-eyed and loam-knuckled man who lives near us and who spends his serene retirement in raising for his neighbors what they are too lazy to raise for themselves. These days my kind of gardening comes to little more than just-add-tap-water-and-set. It is to the flowering world what instant powder is to coffee, with the minor difference that the flower water should not be boiling, and with the major difference that the flowering result is as authentic as if the process were real.

Perhaps we no longer have time for the full process of a green reality. Yet there was a time when I knew my garden up from seed. My mother and aunt used to set out a huge kitchen garden when I was growing up and I was automatically its chore boy, even to the point of suffering the ridicule of my fellow hoodlums when we managed to corner a load of manure. At such times, I was appointed as the local substitute for the McCormick spreader while the boys stood by the fence and let me know how suitably I was occupied.

Nevertheless, we ate out of that garden and we ate well all summer and through the winter, too, out of the rows of Mason jars that crowded the cellar shelves. And when the last clacking stalks of the corn stood autumn-blown and the last apples were in, it was the chrysanthemums opening around the house foundations that announced the end of the season.

Whether home-grown or store-boughten, they are still the memorial flower, forever tuned to all the last colors of fruit and leaf. And if, these days, I am no more gardener than it takes to turn a shovelful of soft loam, fill the hole with water, and set in a plant someone else raised for me, there is still memory enough in the flowers themselves. They tell me summer is trailing off into the right colors, and they turn me back to thinking of the fruit of this summer and that of summers past.

I have it in mind, the odor of chrysanthemums still with me, that the peaches and grapes were bad this year and that they seem to be getting worse annually. I have about given up on grapes. Concords picked fresh from the vine are still what they were, but the California imports are dead on the taste by the time they arrive to market. They look good in their crates, but the sun is not in them. They were picked before the sun and were left to refrigerate to a tasteless nothing.

A pity. But it is the peaches I most regret. We had two peach trees behind the house, one early and one late, and my uncle had grafted onto each of them a few branches from some of his friends' trees. There were, consequently, several kinds of peaches on each tree. And barring a bad blow, few of them ended up as windfalls.

The trees were small and willowy. Even standing on the ground, I could reach halfway into them. Or with a step-ladder I could pick them clean. But we were in no hurry to pick them clean. A few bushel baskets of the fruit were picked for canning, but the real ritual was to walk around the trees in their season, studying the boughs until the perfect peach announced itself to the eye. And that was the one to reach for. It came fuzzy and warm into the hand and had to be rubbed in the palms to get the fuzz off. Then, if the choice had been right, it would split open into two yellow halves, the inner hollow of each veined red by the pit, and the juice ready to burst on the tongue when the flesh was bitten.

MY lazy-man's chrysanthemums reminded me that such a peach is the perfect fruit, the one fruit above all others. As it happened, I made a quick trip around the world this summer. President Carlos P. Romulo invited me to lecture at the University of the Philippines and while I was there I feasted on mangos, papayas, fresh pineapples, endless kinds of bananas, and a whole series of tropic fruits I had never before tasted. All of them were delicious and all of them had been picked sun-ripe and brought to market without refrigeration. Yet none of them was a peach. The one perfect peach I came on all summer was from a bagful I bought in East Middlebury, Vermont, on August 16, the day I arrived at Bread Loaf. The grocer in East Middlebury had the remnants of one basket of local peaches on his

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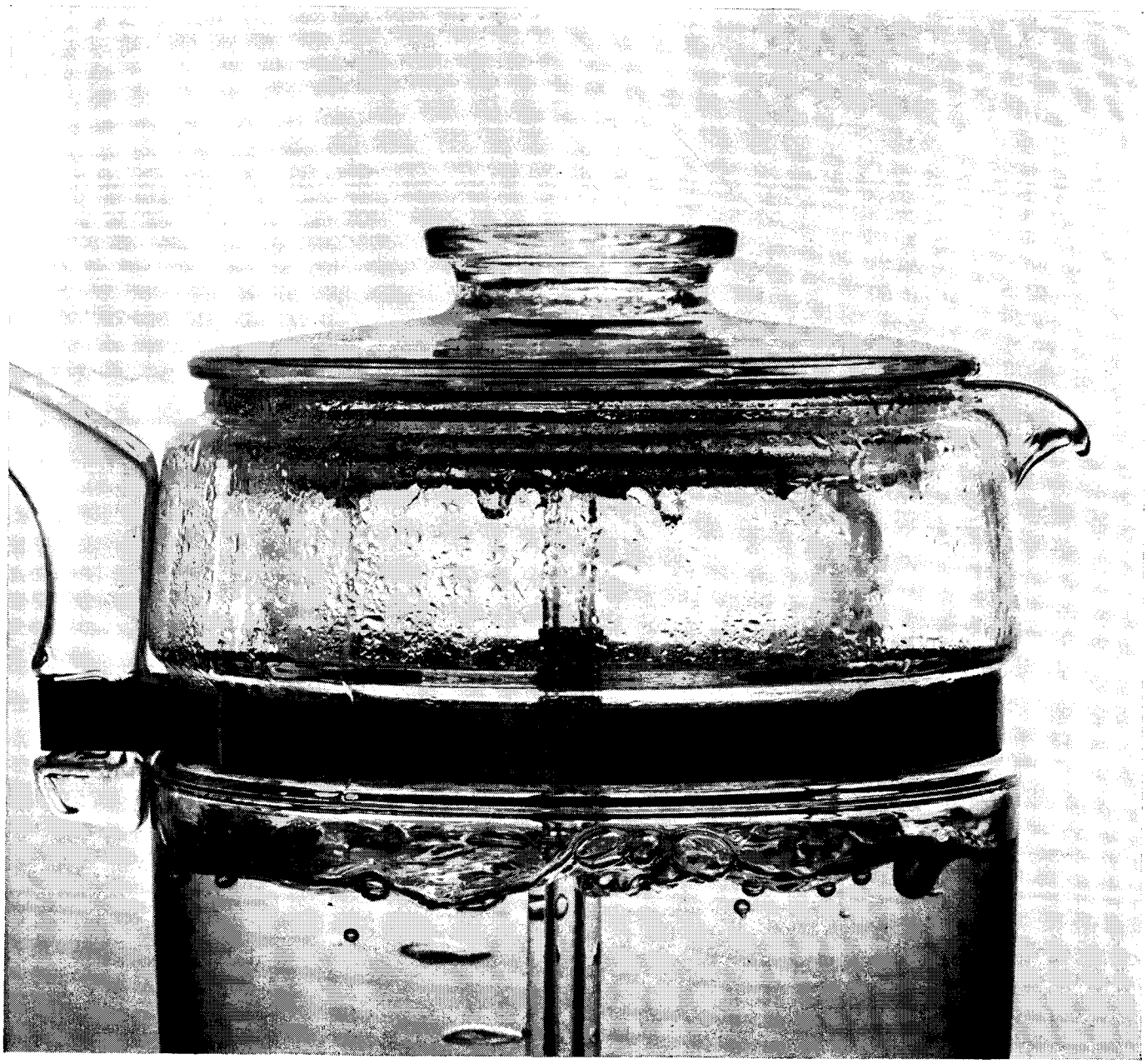

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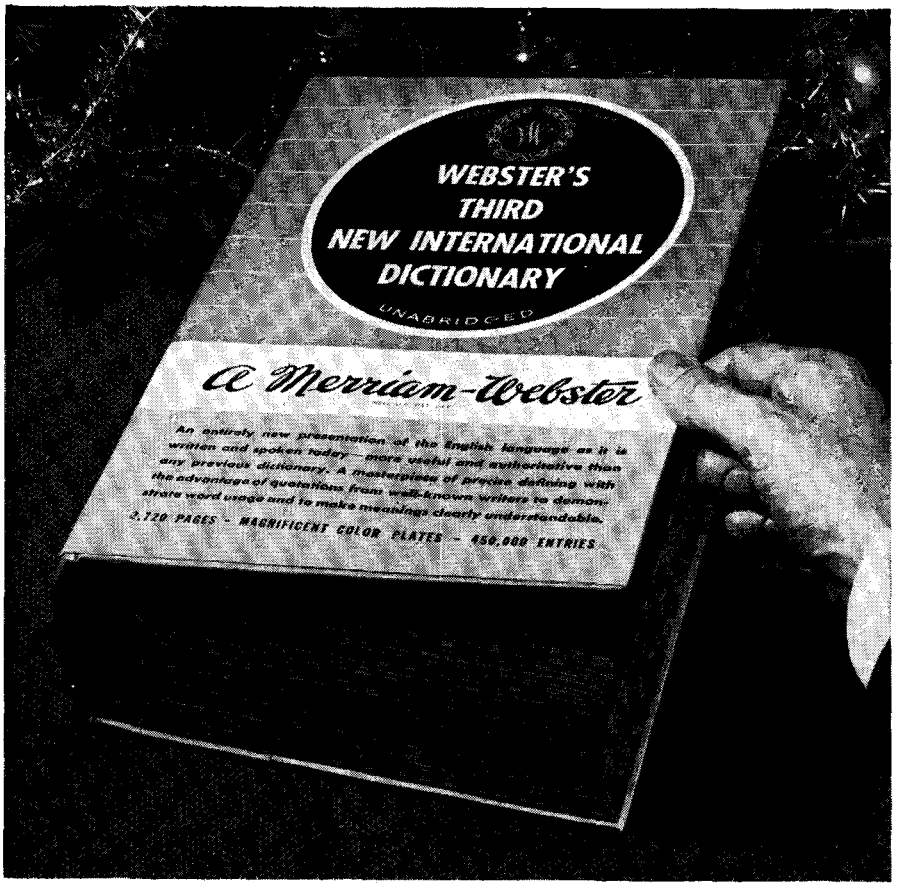

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counter and I bought him out. Arrived at Bread Loaf, I spread the fruit in the sun and instantly spotted the one I could put my hope in. It was large, firm, and exactly colored. I washed it, split it open, removed the pit, and bit into it, and it burst on my tongue as nothing had since I last balanced one of my own peaches out of my own trees.

It was the perfect fruit, and nothing in all the steamy jungles could come near it. And it was also the only perfect one of the lot. The others were good enough, but only good enough, and what good is that? A man thinking back from chrysanthemums is in no mood for adequacy. He needs to remember perfect things, if he can find them to remember. And so it is that I am reminded by chrysanthemums that this was the summer of a single perfect peach.

The apples have been good this year. Every roadside stand in New Jersey has had treasures to offer. I hope they have done well in upper New England. And in my autumn mood, I hope some farmer with the right memories has a barrel of cider left to harden and to set out in the field to freeze once winter sets in. For my chrysanthemums also remind me of field applejack. Not the distilled stuff, though it's good enough, but the field-frozen. Field-frozen applejack is another pure chrysanthemum taste. When a barrel of cider is left out to the winter, the water content freezes while the alcohol, along with all the marvelously unboiled apple-fleck impurities of pure taste draw to the center. When the barrel is frozen hard and has split its hoops, a man may run a hot iron through the ice to tap the liquid core. And nothing in the world is like it.

IT IS over twenty years since I had a taste of the real thing, but what else are chrysanthemums for? They are not only the flowers of memory but its sharpener. Their tang brings back the hope of tang. To smell them is inevitably to remember what was perfect once. And what may be again, though we may have to wander through rare markets before we find it. Or perhaps I should say through small and backward markets. Certainly the supermarkets have little to offer that a man can eat and be satisfied with. Not if he has the odor and mood of chrysanthemums about him.

For the thing about chrysanthemums is that they are final and that they will have nothing to do with what is only good enough. They are the year's last perfect opening. They are not the harvest flower, but the flower after harvest. The memorial flower. The tang of the real year's end. And they make the mood that will settle only for what is perfect in memory, letting even instant gardeners in on the longest of what they remember best.

—JOHN CIARDI.

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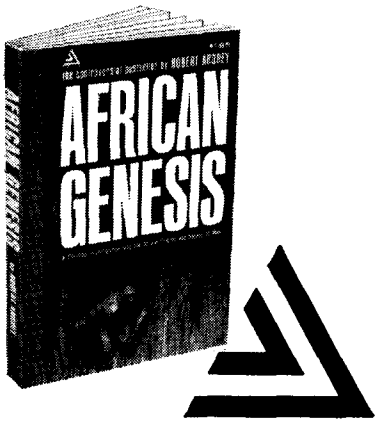

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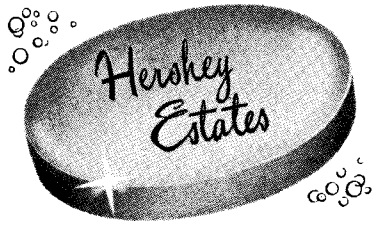

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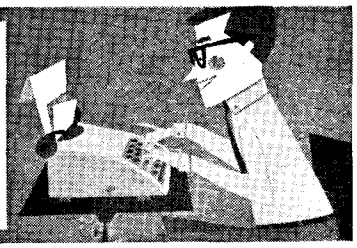

Third-Degree Burn

THERE IS A fear in high places that the recent public burning of a draft card may lead to general outbreaks of pyromania in other papers peculiar to Americana—such as a public burning of a credit card, or even a banking card when you discover you don't really have a friend there.

To forestall these possible acts of arson the House Committee on Un-Attractive Activities decided to investigate. They called in a young man. The committee consisted of Congressmen North, East, South, and West. North leads:

"Young man, I suppose you're wondering why we called you here. It's in connection with setting fire to your draft card. You remember?"

"Yes, sir."

"How old are you?"

"Twenty."

"Are you employed?"

"Yes, sir. I work for a charity organization that distributes books to the indigent."

"What is your salary?"

"About twelve dollars a month."

"Now about this draft card burning—are you proud you did that?"

"Well, it's not 'proud.' I feel I was more of the catalyst."

"The what?"

"The catalyst. That means, sir, the agent that brought the force into focus."

"You don't have to define for me. Now how would you feel about a marriage license? Would you burn that?"

"Oh, I'm not married, sir."

"Well, suppose you were married."

"Oh, I can't suppose that, sir. Not on my salary."

"Can't you imagine you are married?"

"I'd rather not, sir. I'm in enough trouble as it is."

"Well, then, how about a man who is married. Would you advise him to burn his marriage license?"

"Well, doesn't that depend on the man's wife, sir?"

"I'll ask the questions. You stick to the answers."

Congressman East interposes: "Let me take the witness for a moment. Relax, young man. There's nothing to be nervous about. You may smoke if you like."

"I don't smoke, sir."

"You don't smoke at all? Cigar, cigarette, pipe?"

"No, sir."

"Well now, perhaps you can tell this committee why you carry a lighter. Is that just to burn draft cards?"

"Oh no, sir. I borrowed it."

"You borrowed it! Now we're finally getting somewhere. That's what we wanted to know. Was this a group action? Are you a member of some group or organization?"

"Do you mean, sir, a group or organization that lends lighters?"

"No, I don't mean a group that—relax young man. Take it easy. Now, let me ask you—how do you feel toward a driver's license? Would you burn a little driver's license?"

"Oh, I don't have a car, sir."

"Well, imagine you had a car. Not a big car—say a Chevy or a Rambler or a Volkswagen. I don't necessarily mean a big catalyst."

"A big what, sir?"

Congressman West interjects: "Now you cut that out!"

Congressman East replies:

"I didn't say anything."

"Not you! I was talking to him. Tell me, young man, do you have a Social Security card?"

"Yes, sir."

"Why don't you burn that? Or isn't that antisocial enough for you? You seem to be antisocial enough to burn your . . . uh . . . what was it he burned again?"

Congressman South: "His draft card. So you believe nothing is antisocial except draft cards, is that it?"

"Do you mean, sir, do I believe it's social to go to war?"

Congressman West: "Young man, we are not here to answer to your questions. This is an investigation by the House Un-Attractive Activities committee. If you don't want to answer questions then you must cooperate like all our witnesses. Just take the Fifth."

"The Fifth, sir?"

"Yes. Just say I refuse to answer on the grounds of—and so on and so on. Here, read it off this card. . . . No, no, read it out loud. Go ahead—the question is do you believe it's only antisocial to burn your draft card but not your other—no, no, no! Don't burn it! Read it!"

—GOODMAN ACE.

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SR's Check List of the Week's New Books

Anthropology

THE LIVING RACES OF MAN. By Carleton S. Coon. Knopf. $10.

THE NUNAMIUT ESKIMOS: Hunters of Caribou. By Nicholas J. Gubser. Yale Univ. Press. $8.50.

Archeology

THE CIVILIZATION OF GREECE. By François Chamoux. Simon & Schuster. $12.95.

INTERCONNECTIONS IN THE ANCIENT NEAR EAST: A Study of the Relationships Between the Arts of Egypt, the Aegean, and Western Asia. By William Stevenson Smith. Yale Univ. Press. $17.50.

TESTAMENTS OF TIME: The Story of Pursuit of Lost Manuscripts. By Leo Deuel. Knopf. $8.95.

Art, Architecture

THE ARCHITECTURE OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE. Vol. I: An Introductory Study. By William L. MacDonald. Yale Univ. Press. $17.50.

ETRUSCAN ART, Vol. I. By Raymond Bloch. New York Graphic Society. $10.

Business, Economics

ECONOMIC ADVICE AND PRESIDENTIAL LEADERSHIP: The Council of Economic Advisers. By Edward S. Flash, Jr. Columbia Univ Press. $8.95.

AN EMBARRASSMENT OF PLENTY. By Lauren Soth. Crowell. $5.95.

HOW TO WIN THE BUSINESS BATTLE; or, How Our British Cousins Survive the Rodent Race. By Eric Webster. Coward-McCann. $4.50.

THE YOUNG EXECUTIVES. By Walter Guzzardi, Jr. New American Library. $4.95.

Crime, Suspense

COFFIN IN MALTA. By Gwendoline Butler. Walker. $3.50.

GIRL ON THE RUN. By Hillary Waugh. Doubleday. $3.95.

THE MEANDERING CORPSE. By Richard Prather. Trident. $3.95.

RING OF MISCHIEF. By Margaret Summerton. Dutton. $3.95.

Current Affairs

THE BARRIOS OF MANTA. By Earle and Rhoda Brooks. New American Library. $5.95.

INDIA. By Stanley Wolpert. Prentice-Hall. Hardbound, $4.95. Paperback, $1.95.

L.B.J.'s INNER CIRCLE. By Charles Roberts. Delacorte. $5.

MAINLINE TO NOWHERE: The Making of a Heroin Addict. By Yves J. Kron and Edward M. Brown. Pantheon. $4.95.

MAN IN METROPOLIS. By Louis B. Schlivek. Doubleday. $7.50.

MEN OR INSECTS? A Study of Population Problems. By Alfred Fabre-Luce. Horizon. $4.50.

MOSCOW SUMMER. By Mihajlo Mihajlov. Farrar, Straus & Giroux. $4.50.

THE PARANOID STYLE IN AMERICAN POLITICS AND OTHER ESSAYS. By Richard Hofstadter. Knopf. $5.95.

POLITICS IN WEST AFRICA. By W. Arthur Lewis. Oxford Univ. Press. $3.50.

SANTO DOMINGO: Revolt of the Damned. By Dan Kurzman. Putnam. $5.95.

SOCIAL CHANGE IN ISRAEL. By Judah Matras. Aldine. $6.95.

Fiction

THE EARTHLY PARADISE. By Robert Thom. Trident. $3.95.

THE MISSION. By Marcos Spinelli. Vanguard. $4.95.

MODERN MASTERPIECES OF SCIENCE FICTION. By Sam Moskowitz. World. $6.

SEEKERS OF TOMORROW. By Sam Moskowitz. World. $6.

THE SYSTEM OF DANTE'S HELL. By LeRoi Jones. Grove. $3.95.

A TRUE STORY. By Stephen Hudson. Dutton. $6.95.

THE TWO DEATHS OF QUINCAS WATERYELL. By Jorge Amado. Knopf. $3.95.

WATCH ON THE WALL. By Hallie Burnett. Morrow. $5.95.

YELLOW FEVER. By Jean Larteguy. Dutton. $4.95.

History

BEFORE THE LAMPS WENT OUT: Britain's Golden Age, Christmas 1913-August 1914. By Geoffrey Marcus. Atlantic-Little, Brown. $7.50.

BEYOND CONCORD: Selected Writings of David Atwood Wasson. Edited by Charles H. Foster. Indiana Univ. Press. $8.75.

THE JOHN ADAMS PAPERS. Selected, edited, and interpreted by Frank Donovan. Dodd, Mead. $5.

LABOR IN CRISIS: The Steel Strike of 1919. By David Brody. Lippincott. $3.95.

LEGAL PAPERS OF JOHN ADAMS. Edited by L. Kinvin Wroth and Hiller B. Zobel. Harvard Univ. Press. Three vols. $30.

LIVING DOCUMENTS IN AMERICAN HISTORY. Compiled and edited by John Anthony Scott. Washington Square Press. $5.95.

NAPOLEON AND THE BIRTH OF MODERN SPAIN. Vol I: The Challenge to the Old Order. Vol. 2: The Struggle, Without and Within. By Gabriel H. Lovett. New York Univ. Press. $10 each.

SLAVE SOCIETY OF THE BRITISH LEEWARD ISLANDS AT THE END OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY. By Elsa V. Goveia. Yale Univ. Press. $8.50.

THE TWO ASSASSINS. By Renatus Hartogs with Lucy Freeman. Crowell. $5.95.

Literary History, Criticism

THE PLOT OF SATIRE. By Alvin B. Kernan. Yale Univ. Press. $6.50.

A SEASON OF DREAMS: The Fiction of Eudora Welty. By Alfred Appel, Jr. Louisiana State Univ. Press. $7.50.

SHAKESPEARE SURVEY 18. Edited by Allardyce Nicoll. Cambridge Univ. Press. $8.50.

(*Continued on page* 63)

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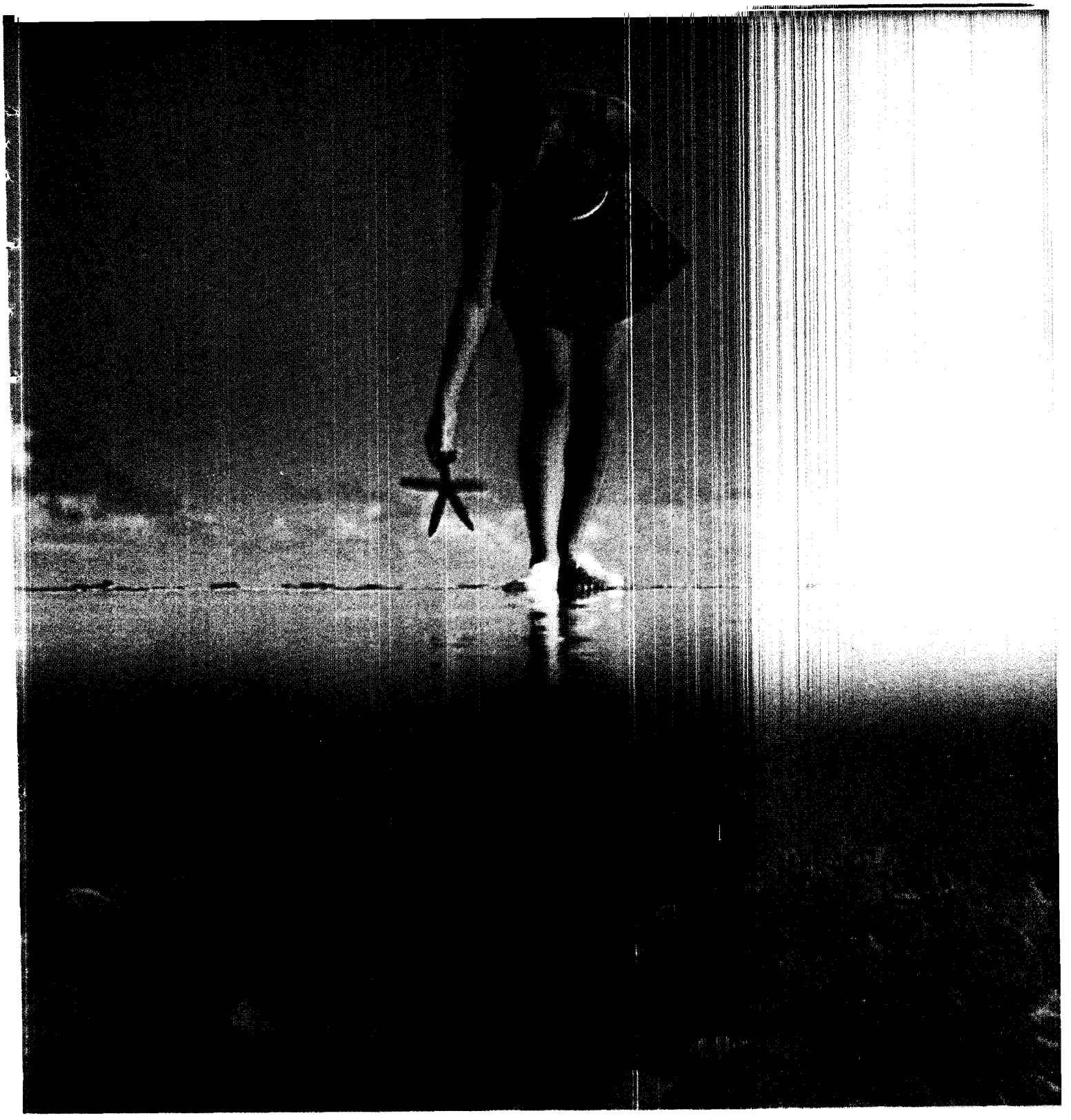

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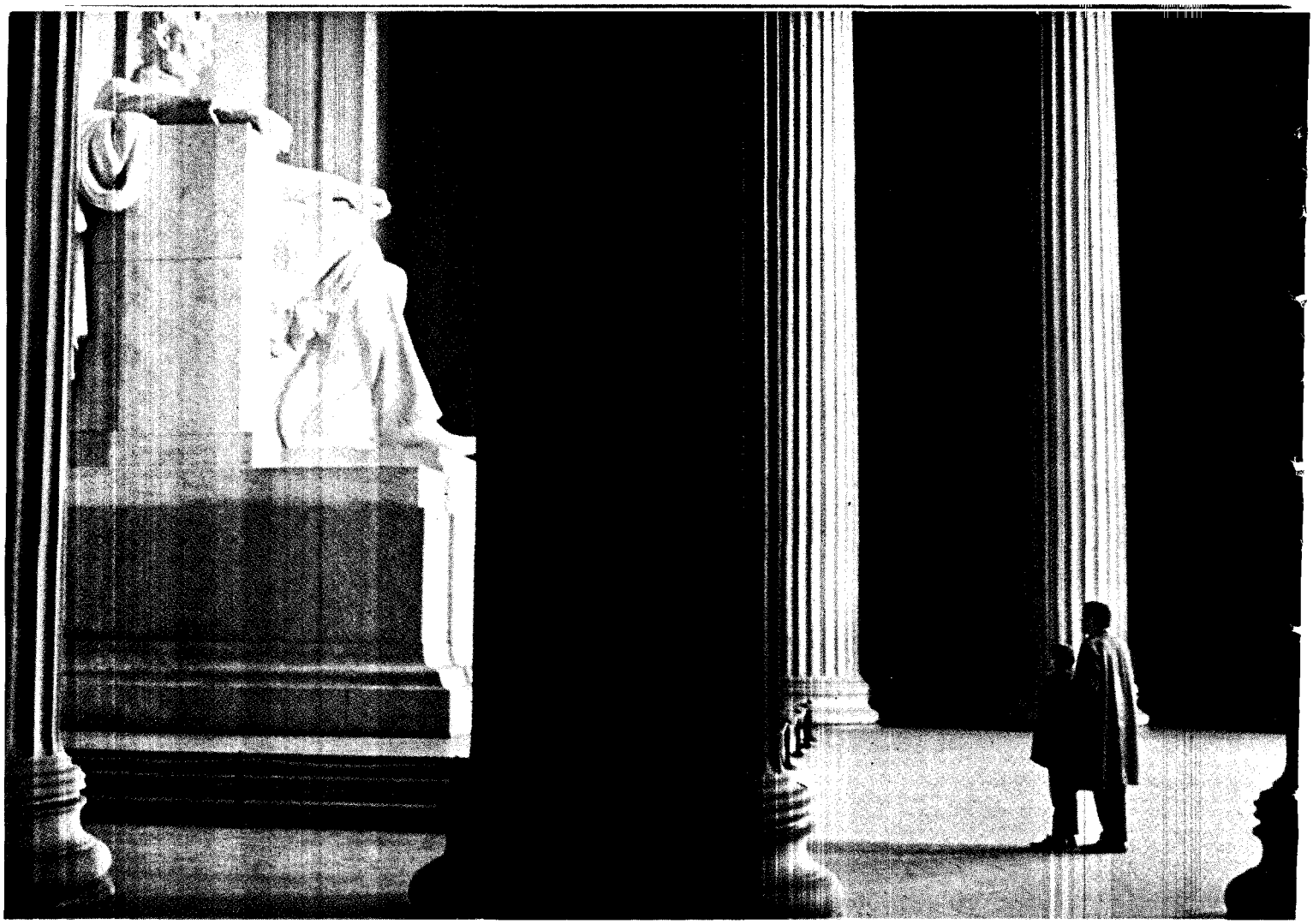

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INTERNATIONAL PAPER

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Saturday Review
November 20, 1965

WHY I AM NOT GOING TO THE MOON

By JOSEPH WOOD KRUTCH

IT WAS, I believe, a mountain climber who invented the phrase "because it is there" to explain why he wanted to climb a particular peak. Because ours is an age devoted to all sorts of unexamined enterprises his phrase has passed into popular speech and the very frequency with which it is invoked is a striking indication of the fact that many of the things we do, many of the ends we pursue, cannot be justified except by saying that, after all, these things can be done and these ends can be pursued.

Yet we cannot, after all, study everything that could be studied or do everything that could be done. Wisdom would seem to suggest that we ask, not only what can be done, but what is most worth doing—but that is exactly what the "because it is there" philosophy refuses to recognize. As Thoreau said, it is not worthwhile to go half way round the world to count the cats in Zanzibar. But there are, I presume, cats in Zanzibar and they could be counted. Better yet, the number could be pretty accurately estimated by a scientifically planned sampling. But before approving such an enterprise as one we ought to undertake, I would want some sounder reason than simply the fact that the cats are, presumably, there.

When President Kennedy was asked why our government was so eager to get someone to the moon, even he could think of no better answer than the catchphrase "because it is there." Now, I am willing to believe that there may be better reasons. They may be military, and if there are sound military reasons I somewhat reluctantly yield to them. But I dismiss as mere foolish excuses most of the others I have heard—such as the prestige value of beating the Russians or, most farfetched of all, von Braun's suggestion that colonization of the bodies in outer space is the best solution to the population problem.

At the risk of provoking the scorn of all the proponents of pure science, fundamental research, and so forth (as well as of all the "because it is there" boys), I would like to say that I have not yet heard any argument that seemed to me to justify the enormous expenditure of time, money, and brains upon this particular enterprise. Henry Adams said that the Middle Ages believed building cathedrals the thing most worth doing, just as the mid-nineteenth century in the United States gave the same sort of priority to railroad building. In our own time, exploration of space seems to have won a similar priority. We seem to regard it as not only worth doing but even more worth doing than anything else and, therefore, worth anything it may cost. But there is, it seems to me, no doubt that this inevitably means less time, less money, and less available brainpower to be spent on other things that, in addition to being there, seem to have stronger claims upon our attention.

THAT we should be dazzled by the sheer wonder of what man has been able to do is not surprising. The technical problems solved are surely the most difficult ever attacked by science. Out of nowhere has suddenly appeared a whole new race of experts who seem to move easily in a realm of thought and of practice that most of us cannot even enter. Within a few years they have accomplished what the most extravagant follower of Jules Verne would not have dared imagine except for some distant future. Yet the very wonder of it makes it difficult for us to maintain any sense of proportion. To question its value is likely to seem mere impudence. Yet it ought to be, at least, questioned.

I am not thinking exclusively in terms of the argument that the money spent might be better used to relieve the sufferings of the poor, although that is itself an argument not quite so easily disposed of as Philip Morrison, professor of physics at Cornell and formerly a group leader at Los Alamos, assumed when he wrote recently in *The New Leader*: "The claim of each act we carry out in common must rest on its merit and not on the general thesis that no rich, strange, useless thing can justly be bought while some men lack necessities. . . . Those who built the Acropolis forgot the Helots; those who sailed the Indies thought nothing of the landless peasants."

The poor we have always with us and those who cite that text do not always seem to remember the context—which might seem to make it support Professor Morrison's thesis. The comment was made as a reply to those of the disciples who had rebuked a stranger woman for pouring upon the head of Jesus a rich ointment which, they pointed out, might have been sold and the proceeds given to the poor. "The poor ye have always with you but me you have not always with you." But the question is not merely whether *any* rich, interesting, or beautiful thing can justifiably be bought while some men lack necessities. It is whether, in this particular case, the enormous expenditure is justified when it means neglecting, not only many men, but many other things with at least as much claim to being "rich, strange and (possibly) useful" as well.

Like the poor, this problem has always been with us and in one form or another probably always will be. But in times past men did have one guide in deciding *which* rich and strange thing was worth spending time and brains and money to create or do: They believed (as we do not) that one thing was intrinsically and absolutely better, wiser, or more to be admired than something else. They did not have to fall back on any "be-

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cause it is there" argument because they had not, like us, been reduced by moral and cultural relativism to a sort of impotence that leaves us powerless to defend one choice as opposed to another and that therefore encourages us to do whatever can be done and to offer no reason more persuasive than the simple "because it is there to be done."

If we do indeed do some things that should have been left undone and do others less worth doing than those we neglect, none of that can be blamed on science itself. The great but limited field of its competence is knowing (pure science) and doing (technology). It cannot—as the wiser of its practitioners admit—evaluate. Though it can teach us how to get to the moon, we need something else to tell us whether or not we ought to go there.

Hence it is that if science is not to blame, some scientists are—just insofar as they encourage the now almost universal belief that science is omnicompetent and that any problems that cannot be solved by the scientific method (and that means all questions involving evaluation) are simply unsolvable or, essentially, meaningless. The tendency to fall back upon "because it is there" as the only answer to the question why a certain thing should be done is simply a demonstration of the inadequacy of science alone as a guide for either society or for the life of an individual.

Three centuries and a half ago Francis Bacon wrote in *The Advancement of Learning*: "We are much beholden to Machiavelli and others, that write what men do, and not what they ought to do." This was perhaps a useful observation at the time; but the situation in the intellectual world is now by no means what it was in Bacon's day. And of all the threats to civilization perhaps none is greater than that which leads sociology to ask only what men do do and technology only what can be done, or, to use again the popular phrase, "what is there." By banishing "ought" from the vocabulary of our sociology, and by asking of our technologists only what they can do rather than what is worth doing, we are making ourselves passengers in a vehicle over which no critical intelligence pretends to exercise any control and which may, indeed, take us not only to the moon but to destinations even less desirable.

SOME will no doubt answer that many of the advances of science are due to boundless curiosity concerning things that seem to have no possible application. But such curiosity is much safer when it leads us to know whatever we can know rather than to do whatever we can do. We have a tendency to rush from knowing to doing without pausing for reflection. Technology, if not science, has sometimes entailed penalties when it has taught us how to do things better left undone. This fact was seldom noted even by a few until quite recently when even a minority began to wonder whether or not it would have been better for everybody if the secret of the atom had never been penetrated. Curiosity, even scientific curiosity, can open a Pandora's box as well as a treasure chest. And one should use a certain amount of caution in lifting the lid of any box whose contents are unknown.

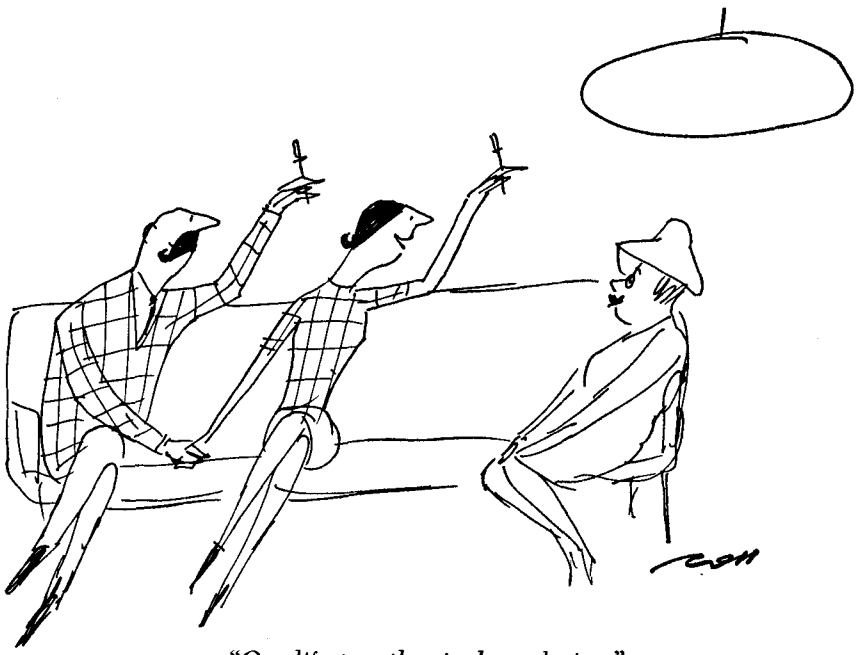
Primitive man suffered from both a lack of knowledge and a lack of know-how. He believed a great many absurd and often troublesome things that were not true. He had a very limited knowledge of how to do what he wanted to do. But this last limitation was also something of a safeguard, even if a rather unsatisfactory one. He could not destroy his environment as disastrously as we can destroy ours, and he could not kill as many of his neighbors as he would have been glad to kill if he had known how. Perhaps his intentions and desires were even worse than ours, but he didn't know as well as we how to implement them. We know only too well. Know-how continues to leave know-what and know-whether further and further behind.

I do not know just how military expenditures compare with those incurred in connection with the exploration of space. But except for defense, no other single enterprise of the government is financed on so lavish a scale. This surely suggests that those responsible for giving it this unquestioned priority assume that of all the achievements possible in our generation this is the one most important. But does anyone seriously believe that this is true? That if a good fairy should grant us one wish we should say, "Let me get to the moon, and beyond"?

Consider, for example, the population explosion and not only what it has already done to make life difficult and ugly but also what it threatens to do in the future. In the minds of many thoughtful people it is a danger to mankind that may be as great as that of atomic warfare—the one threatening us with too many people, the other with a world in which there will be none at all. One could easily fill a book full of statements by responsible persons that say just this in one way or another. One moderate comment from Dr. Walter Hoagland, president of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, will suffice. In a recent *Bulletin of the Atomic Scientist* he described experiments that demonstrate to his satisfaction that in animal populations overcrowding produces various pathological conditions including a fatal adrenal malfunction called the "Stress Syndrome." He believes that the same thing will happen to human beings under similar circumstances, and this seems to dispose of the assurance that the feeding of a monstrously overgrown population will present no serious problems to an ever-advancing technology.

Dr. Hoagland went on to suggest that we can "do nothing and just wait for the Stress Syndrome or a new virus to do its work," or we can "leave the solution to some trigger-happy dictator with a suitable stockpile of atomic weapons." On the other hand, so he suggests, we might just possibly "decide on an optimum population for the world and by education and social pressure try to see that it is not exceeded."

Admittedly, that last suggestion, though the only sensible one, involves problems to which the solutions are



"Our life together is sheer design."

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not at the moment by any means obvious. But it is to President Johnson's credit that he has given, more clearly than any other high government official ever has, recognition to the fact that the population explosion should be reckoned with somehow, sometime. Not long after his inauguration the foreign aid bill contained this sentence: "Funds available to carry out this provision may be used to conduct research into the problems of population growth." True, the implication seems to be that no such problems exist in our own country. And the very fact that so timid a statement should mark an epoch is itself enough to demonstrate how casually, almost as a parenthetical afterthought, we approach what is, in actual fact, the second if not the first greatest threat to the future of mankind. Suppose that we had got no further in our plans to explore space than the provision in an omnibus bill for funds "to conduct research into the problem of space travel." Would that not suggest that we didn't think it very important—just something that might be looked into some day and at leisure?

Historians of ancient Egypt say that what we would call its "national income" was, during its days of greatness, very high. But the standard of living endured by the majority of its population was very low indeed because all of the income above what was essential to the barest existence went into the pyramids and other extravagances.

Now, no one could say that such a situation exists today in the United States. A good deal of our national income goes, not only into welfare, but into the pockets of citizens who buy with it what they like—whether that be education for their children, books and pictures and music for themselves, or (in somewhat more numerous instances) the most expensive automobiles their income (plus available credit) will get them. But future historians (if there are any) may wonder that we put into our rocket motors and all that goes into the making of them so large a slice of the national income.

Once, for several centuries, the Western world was united in the belief that the most important task it could possibly accomplish would be the recovery of the Holy Sepulcher. It sacrificed thousands of lives, to say nothing of vast wealth and a large part of its manpower, in the attempt to achieve something that few of us today can regard as having been more than an irrational obsession. Yet to a large section of the intelligent men of that time the enterprise must have seemed as obviously important as landing on the moon seems to us. But is not the moon, like the Holy Sepulcher, a mere symbol? It is not even in the hands of the infidel—though I suppose that if the Russians get there first it will be considered to be. And I wonder if, at some not too distant date, our crusade will not have come to seem no less incomprehensible than that of our forefathers.

"Our mission will be to demonstrate to them that our glen would be the worst possible site for their shopping area."

Why don't we devote to the problem of overpopulation an effort as determined as that we are making to get to the moon before the Russians? Why, even at long last, do we do no more than to say that a small part of a large fund may be used to "conduct research into the problem" but not even to take any action?

THE most important of the answers to this question is not the opposition of moralists or the indifference of those who see in what they call a "bumper crop of babies" an ever-increasing market for the baby foods it will eat and, a little later, for the cigarettes it will smoke. The most important reasons are, first, the fact that this problem is far more difficult than the problem (stupendous though it is) of how to get to the moon; and, second, that the solution, if there is one, cannot be reached by the methods that have yielded such astonishingly successful results when applied to all the problems that do not involve human nature and that therefore yield to mechanical solutions. That the technological problem of birth control has been solved, that our so triumphant know-how includes the know-how of contraception, is quite typical of our age's greatest strength. That we do not know how our know-how can be applied to promote a good life is equally so. If a Cousteau suggests that we build undersea cities and a von Braun gives the even more preposterous suggestion that we colonize the planets; if, moreover, these are taken seriously by some, it can only be because these are purely technological solutions and it is upon technology that most of us rest whatever hopes we may have for a decent future.

I remember having read, some fifteen or more years ago, a book by Willy Ley in which was discussed the conditions that would have to be created before a rocket could break away from the earth's gravity and proceed indefinitely toward whatever object in space it had been pointed at. To do that, if I remember correctly, the rocket would have to be capable of a speed twice what it had been possible to achieve up to that time. This critical speed was named "the escape velocity." And though the ironic implications of the term did not strike me then, they do strike me now. Perhaps one of the reasons we are so attracted by the problems of space exploration is that absorption in them helps us forget the more difficult problems lying right at our feet and that an "escape velocity" is precisely what we have achieved.

A good many science fiction stories have been written about the survivors, sometimes the last surviving couple, on a depopulated earth. If I were to try my hand at that kind of fiction I should imagine a pair of astronauts who had escaped to the moon and who looked back at an earth where the Stress Syndrome produced by overcrowding had at last involved, not only the exchange of the Russian and American overkill stockpile, but also the smaller but effective contributions from what are now called—but by then wouldn't be—the undeveloped countries. Our astronauts had brought along the equipment necessary for the return journey. But it did not take them long to decide not to use it.

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Vietnam and U.S. Policy Continuity

IT IS IMPORTANT to remember that United States policy on Vietnam is only part of a larger policy for Indo-China and Southeast Asia in general. The purpose of that policy is to prevent seepage or control—military, political, or economic—from the North. Indo-China is regarded as a unit. If any one of the nations comprising that unit—Vietnam, Laos, Thailand, Cambodia—should come under Chinese Communist domination or sway, the stability and security of the others would be vastly weakened. Moreover, the safety of Indonesia, Burma, and Singapore could be unhinged by what happens in Indo-China. And should Southeast Asia begin to slide, the grim prospect would be chaos in India and Pakistan—in the form of external attack or internal upheavals or both.

In these respects, there has been continuity of U.S. policy objectives in Indo-China through three Administrations. Presidents Eisenhower, Kennedy, and Johnson have fully recognized the need to avoid the runaway train of consequences that could be set in motion in Indo-China. Significant differences are emerging, however, between the measures being taken by the present Administration in pursuit of American objectives and those taken by the previous two Administrations. These differences are having an effect on the totality of our foreign policy.

This is not to say that previous Administrations, confronted by a fast deteriorating situation in Vietnam, might not have adopted the measures now being pursued. This is historical conjecture; substantial arguments could be mounted on both sides. But it is essential nonetheless to review some of the fundamental points in the Vietnam policy—and Asian policy in general—of President Eisenhower and President Kennedy.

One basic point was the avoidance of direct military involvement. President Kennedy, for example, repeatedly said that the war in Vietnam would have to be fought by Vietnamese. The United States could provide important assistance and help to train soldiers, but this government had no intention of intervening directly or committing its own troops. This decision was not capricious. It did not minimize the nature of the opposing force, but neither did it minimize the implications of full intervention. Perhaps the starkest of these implications had to do with committing American forces to a land war in Asia. Over the years, some of this nation's keenest military minds have warned the American people against a situation in which large numbers of our troops would be drawn into Asia. Among the military leaders who called attention to this danger was General Douglas MacArthur.

OF equal importance has been the historical, political, and moral liability that might be attached to full intervention in Asia, with its blistering memories of Western outside rule.

Another key reason of previous Administrations for holding to limited measures in Indo-China was the danger of an uncontrollable war situation. If the military operations in Vietnam, for example, were to increase in tempo and volatility to the point where they could ignite a large-scale war, then nothing could be saved in Indo-China or anywhere else. The bombing of North Vietnam was opposed because it was felt that this was a clear departure from the policy of limited measures for limited objectives.

Obviously, the United States had and has the military power to obliterate North Vietnam and the whole of Indo-China in a matter of seconds. Obviously, too, this would be as destructive of American history and moral values as it would be of the territory we pulverized. It may be useful to remind ourselves that the essential enterprise before us is not to knock down anything that stands in our way but to keep the meaning of America alive and erect. In any event, only madmen suppose it is possible today to have a cheap and cosy hit-and-run nuclear war.

Finally, any appraisal of developing U.S. policy in Asia has to take into account the total problem represented by Communist China—not just in Vietnam or Indo-China but throughout the world. For what China does inside the Communist orbit can have an even greater effect on American security than events in Vietnam. The Chinese are committed to a fixed ideological position which, if it should become dominant in Communist world strategy, would constitute a danger of unprecedented dimensions. President Kennedy, in his American University speech on June 10, 1963, recognized the significant new differences in the policies and developing viewpoints of the Soviet Union and Communist China. He wanted to take advantage of any positive developments occurring in the former and wanted to be in the strongest possible position to guard against negative developments in the latter. He called for an end to the cold war. He knew that the intensive competition with the Soviet Union would continue, but he also knew that the highest national security considerations made it necessary to reduce the combustibility of the nuclear arms race. A disagreement over disarmament measures was only one of a growing number of splitting points between the Soviet Union and Communist China. The elimination of these splitting points could have serious effects on America's security and its position in the world.

Again, it would be irresponsible to say that the previous Administrations, after weighing the multiplicity of balancing and conflicting considerations in our world policy, would not have decided to bomb North Vietnam from the air or commit American troops to a land war in Asia. But it would be equally irresponsible to contend that this decision would not have been a change from previous policy or that the apprehensions underlying that previous policy are not now becoming real. —N.C.

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LETTERS TO THE EDITOR

Training for Peace

In a recent letter from a Marine fighting in Vietnam comes the following:

"War is essentially barbaric, no matter how technically refined it becomes. It is a remarkably uncivilized way to settle disputes. And I think that the fact we are here fighting indicates that the statesmen of the world have failed—their function being to *arbitrate, negotiate,* and *compromise* international disputes without recourse to war. Perhaps they cannot help failing in some cases—if to make war is a primeval instinct in man that cannot be denied—but somehow I think we would have fewer wars if the world's statesmen were required to serve with an infantry company in combat before assuming their posts. It wouldn't do for them simply to tour a battlefield after the action to see the bodies and the carnage. A man can rationalize that as the unfortunate result of necessary violence. And it wouldn't do for them to ride in the airplanes that bomb the battlefield, because the destruction they wreak is quite remote to the pilot, who is only on target for a few seconds to drop his bombs. And it wouldn't do to put them in an artillery battery and let them watch the guns go bang, because the only people who really know the terror of artillery are those who are in their holes deperately trying to crawl up inside their helmets as it comes in. To really sample the barbaric essence of combat one has to be with a squad of men who suddenly are faced with a squad of enemy. One has to feel the certain knowledge that he must kill or be killed. One has to feel the awesome gorge that rises in the breast at such a moment, composed of fear and a certain rage that completely possesses one's senses. And one has to be close enough to the enemy to see his features contorted by the same fear and rage. And then one must see and feel how those emotions translate themselves into raw violence, how one's body moves as if on puppet strings to bring the weapon to the shoulder and fire, or to swing the butt to smash, or to throw the grenade in its agonizing slow, lofting arc—all through a red haze that only subsides when the enemy lies dead at one's feet. Then, though the battle may rage elsewhere, there is a curious silence, and the lungs gasp for air, the limbs are limp and lifeless. I think that if things were right in the world, no man would ever have to experience such feeling toward his fellow man—and I think that if the diplomats, friend and foe alike, knew what close combat is all about there would be many fewer resorts to war."

Perhaps this tells more than further words could convey.

Merton M. Bulla,
Attorney.

Oklahoma City, Okla.

The Kashmir Dilemma

I have just seen William D. Patterson's editorial "A View from India" [*SR*, Oct. 30]. I had been looking forward to some comment from your magazine, but did not expect anything quite so authoritative, and was very pleased that you dealt with the important geopolitical facts at sufficient length—facts that have been ignored widely.

Jaswant Krishnayya,
International Teachers Program,
Graduate School of Business Administration,
Harvard University.

Cambridge, Mass.

The editorial "A View from India" is the clearest presentation of the Kashmir crisis that has come my way.

Edward J. Gerrity, Jr.,
Senior Vice President,
International Telephone and Telegraph Corporation.

New York, N.Y.

In his editorial "A View from India" William D. Patterson says "Pakistan has charged that India, despite protestations that she was willing to abide by the results of a plebiscite, has repeatedly avoided letting the issue be resolved by the Kashmiri people." There is more to it than a "charge" by Pakistan. Mr. Patterson surely knows one uncontested fact—India has not permitted self determination in Kashmir by the plebiscite she agreed to hold.

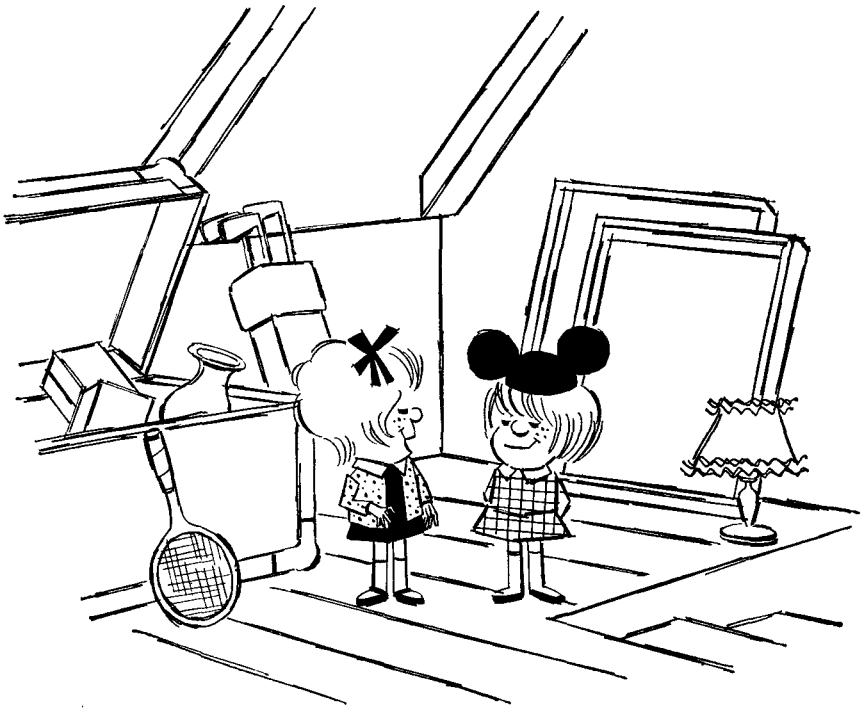
Charles H. Alspach.

Croton-on-Hudson, N.Y.

May I congratulate you for the editorial "A View from India." To my way of thinking, this is the first discussion in an American magazine that truly reflects the position in this area.

G. K. Khanna.

New Delhi, India



"Those were the good old days."

Case for the Defense

I am writing in reference to the article "Does Anyone Know What Creative Writing Is" [*SR*, Sept 18], in which J. Donald Adams attacked my brother Thomas Wolfe as a writer now read only by adolescents and the immature.

He states that Tom was addicted to a diarrhea of words. Surely this is an honest statement, but these words have been accepted for their flow, their structure, and the pictures they create in the mind of the reader. Cannot it be said of Mr. Adams that he also is addicted to a diarrhea of words? But what does he contribute? Nothing but criticism.

Maxwell Perkins, Tom's first editor, and Edward Aswell, Tom's second and last editor, both would raise their voices in protest at Mr. Adams's statement that, but for them, Tom would have been "lost, sunk, and forgotten."

It is true that it was Max Perkins who first recognized Tom and gave him patient, unselfish guidance as to deletions in *Look Homeward, Angel.* Of course he was Tom's father-advisor. But, please remember, it was Tom who created and wrote every word of this book as he did all the others.

I have talked with a few thousand students about Tom these past few years. I thank Heaven for them and the hundreds of thousands of others who are reading Tom's works each year. I am wondering if Mr. Adams's belated indictments might have been motivated by his rereading of Tom's "Portrait of a Literary Critic" in *The Hills Beyond.*

Fred Wolfe.

Spartanburg, S.C.

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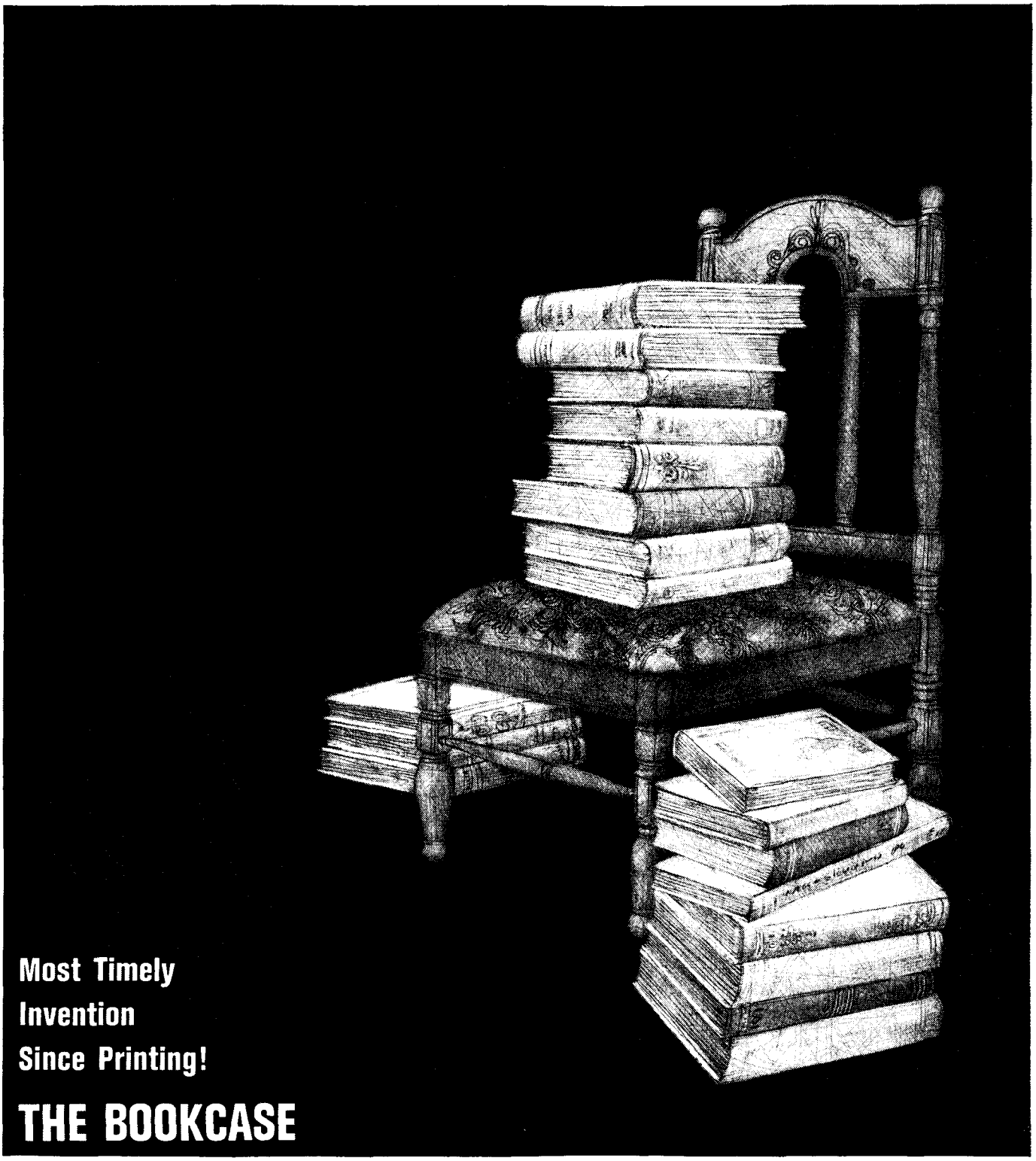

The bookcase for the home was a development of the 17th century when Samuel Pepys designed one of the earliest, because he owned so many books he had to pile them on chairs. Thus, the bookcase came along just in time to take care of the large increase in the number of books being printed and sold. Now, with the "information explosion" continuing at an ever faster pace, Rand McNally helps keep the nation's bookcases well stocked. Besides our own publications, we print and bind all kinds of books for many other publishers . . . from telephone directories to encyclopedias. The next time you take a book from a bookcase (your own, the book store's, or the library's), it may well be a Rand McNally book.

RAND McNALLY
Publishers, printers, mapmakers
Chicago, New York, San Francisco

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Books

LITERARY HORIZONS

Creating the Creators

LAST spring the National Book Committee established the National Medal of Literature, to be given to an American author for "the excellence of his total contribution to literature." A committee of writers nominated W. H. Auden, Lewis Mumford, John Steinbeck, Thornton Wilder, and Edmund Wilson. Although it seems to me that four out of the five were worthy of the award, and although I greatly admire Wilder, who won it, I voted for Wilson. And I still think that, in terms of "total contribution," he led the field. But Wilson, though by no means unhonored, has never been accorded the place he deserves. Only now, for instance, in his seventy-first year, has a book-length study of his work appeared, Sherman Paul's *Edmund Wilson: A Study of Literary Vocation in Our Time* (University of Illinois Press, $5.75)—and this in a period that abounds in books about contemporary writers.

In a brief essay he wrote in 1952, Wilson said that it was his reading at an early age of Taine's *History of English Literature* that determined the direction he would take as a literary critic. Later he read Taine in French and was again fascinated. "My whole point of view about literature was affected by Taine's methods of presentation and interpretation. He had created the creators themselves as characters in a larger drama of cultural and social history, and writing about literature, for me, has always meant narrative and drama as well as the discussion of comparative values. I had also an interest in the biographies of writers which soon took the bit in its teeth. The interest has not been, as is sometimes assumed, derived from the essays of Sainte-Beuve, of which I doubt if I have read a dozen."

In a general way Sherman Paul has followed the same method: that is, he has examined Wilson's career in relation to his times, and, although he has not been lavish with biographical details, he does give the reader a sense of Wilson as a character taking part in a drama. As his subtitle announces, he is writing about a literary vocation, not merely about Wilson as a literary critic. He pays considerable attention to Wilson's two novels and his several plays because they reveal, even more clearly than the essays do, Wilson's major preoccupations. His chief purpose has been to define Wilson's role in American literary life.

That Wilson's role has been important no one doubts. In the Twenties he was a bright young man, writing lively pieces about books and people; parodies; poems; and finally a novel, *I Thought of Daisy*, not the best novel of the decade but, as Professor Paul shows, one that says a lot about American life. In 1931 he published his first book of criticism, *Axel's Castle*, a study of such writers as Yeats, Eliot, Joyce, and Proust, which had a strong influence on his own generation and on the generation to follow. Always concerned with the relationship between art and society, he was moved by the Depression to study the nature of social change, writing both vigorous journalism in *The American Jitters* and social theory in *To the Finland Station*. Later he collected literary essays in *The Triple Thinkers* and *The Wound and the Bow*, and travel essays in *Europe Without Baedeker* and *Red, Black, Blond and Olive*. In late years he has written about Indians and the income tax and Canada and, in the most impressive of his recent books, *Patriotic Gore*, about the literature of the Civil War.

Professor Paul's general thesis is that Wilson has always wanted a better society for the sake of greater art and greater art for the sake of a better society. This made him, at the outset, a follower of Van Wyck Brooks, but he went beyond Brooks, both because he recognized the importance of the symbolists, as Brooks refused to do, and because he was not content with Brooks's nationalism. For a time Wilson considered Lenin, with his mastery of both theory and practice, as the key to the new world, and regarded Lenin's arrival at the Finland station in Moscow as the beginning of modern history. But later, as Paul argues and as *Patriotic Gore* indicates, he returned to the values of an American generation before his own. Acutely dissatisfied with the America in which he finds himself, he has become peevish and crabbed, but he still makes whatever affirmations he can.

Paul suggests that Stanley Edgar Hyman's hostile treatment of Wilson as a critic in *The Armed Vision* (1948) "accounts for Wilson's almost total neglect in the schools." But I doubt that Hyman deserves so much credit—or, if you will, discredit. Whereas the New Criticism lent itself beautifully to academic purposes, since textual analysis is a game almost anybody can play, though not many can play it well, Wilson's critical

26 *SR*'s Check List of the Week's New Books

35 Edmund Wilson: A Study of Literary Vocation in Our Time, by Sherman Paul

37 Sukarno: An Autobiography, as told to Cindy Adams

38 Russia and History's Turning Point, by Alexander Kerensky

39 The Bolsheviks, by Adam B. Ulam; Power and the Soviet Elite, by Boris I. Nicolaevsky

40 Pick of the Paperbacks

42 The Autobiography of Malcolm X; Message to the Blackman in America, by Elijah Muhammad

45 Despoilers of Democracy, by Clark R. Mollenhoff

46 The Savage State, by Georges Conchon

48 Those Who Love, by Irving Stone

49 A Dedicated Man and Other Stories, by Elizabeth Taylor

50 Avalon, by Anya Seton

50 The Tin Can Tree, by Anne Tyler

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method requires the application of greater resources than the average professor, to say nothing of the average graduate student, can command. In every way Wilson has been a tough man to categorize, and that is why a book such as Professor Paul's, which tries to examine all the sides of a truly many-sided man, is valuable.

Among other things, Wilson has been an admirable literary journalist, and his incidental pieces have been collected in *The Shores of Light, Classics and Commercials*, and now *The Bit in My Teeth* (Farrar, Straus & Giroux, $7.50). (The three, boxed, are available at $18.50.) The new volume, made up of nearly fifty pieces, mostly written between 1950 and 1965, illustrates the span of Wilson's interests. He writes on Shaw, Holmes, Theodore Roosevelt, George Ade, the Marquis de Sade, James Branch Cabell (of whom he thinks well), J. R. R. Tolkien (of whom he does not think well), Pasternak, bees, mushrooms, and many other topics. A long article discusses dictionaries—Greek, French, Hebrew, Russian, and Hungarian.

There are two articles on usage, which I read with pleasure until I came on this: "Granville Hicks, for example, in the *Saturday Review*, says, 'Cheever has been writing excellent short stories for twenty years or more with comparatively few kudos. . .'" I didn't write that, I really didn't. I don't know much Greek, but I do know that kudos is a singular noun. I wrote, "with comparatively little recognition," but somebody or other, needing to save a line, decided he could do it by changing the last two words. Edmund Wilson would have stamped and screamed, and probably that's just what I ought to have done.

—Granville Hicks.

FRASER YOUNG'S LITERARY CRYPT No. 1163

A cryptogram is writing in cipher. Every letter is part of a code that remains constant throughout the puzzle. Answer No. 1163 will be found in the next issue.

NOGG JHWDIG DQ SEG MDAH

SEJS ITQSQ XTZ ATSEDAF ZAC-

GQQ XTZ JIS ZRTA DS.

JATA

Answer to Literary Crypt No. 1162

The secret of being tiresome is to tell everything. —Voltaire.

LETTERS TO THE Book Review Editor

Tension-Filled Position

In his review of my *Man's Rage for Chaos: Biology, Behavior, and the Arts* [*SR*, Oct. 30] Robert J. Clements hurls at me the name of Michelangelo; but I hurl back at him a greater name. Plato asserted that poets introduce disorder into the soul and thus the state, that the truth or falsity of their statements is disconnected from their poetic function, and that they do not know what they are doing, and need not. All subsequent criticism and esthetics has tried to prove Plato wrong, using only half of Plato's tension-filled position, his own rage for order. I believe that Plato was right in his observations, though wrong in his moral deductions, and that we need art to prepare us to undertake the other half of his concern, the encounter with what is to us the chaos of the phenomenal world. Why? An observation is an interpretation, and interpretation is a function of perception, which is selective and patterned and always excludes some pertinent sensory data. Art trains us to endure the tension we *must* endure to break down perceptual patterning, which is both the instrument with which we make sense out of the phenomenal world and our defense against it. Further, in implying that I avoid discussing highly ordered art, Mr. Clements has misinformed his readers. Finally, I have found the book difficult only to those humanists and estheticians whose minds have been corrupted by traditional esthetics and criticism.

Morse Peckham.

Philadelphia, Pa.

In *SR*'s Head, a Cavity

No, Mr. Bittner, editors and proofreaders! Not McCavitty! [As stated in review of *The Life of Dylan Thomas*, *SR*, Oct. 30.]

Macavity,
to go with his depravity
and suavity
but not the law of gravity.

J. M. Breese.

Nichols, Conn.

Convenience

In his review of *The Complete Justine* [*SR*, Sept. 11] Robert Clements uses the word "vespasienne." What does it mean?

H. G. Sandstrom.

New York, N.Y.

Editor's Note: "*Vespasienne, n.f.* Public urinal; public convenience." —*The New Cassell's French Dictionary.*

Myths About Montgomery?

As a Canadian living in Africa I read with interest the review, by Hal Lehrman, of Thomas Molnar's book *Africa: A Political Travelogue* [*SR*, Sept. 4].

It occurs to me that many of us must have been affected by "mass media clichés, stereotypes and myths" as to world events other than things going on here. I am wondering whether or not Mr. Molnar would perhaps do us all a service by exploding some of the misconceptions we have picked up as to Hitler's Germany and World War II, and the Civil Rights efforts made in places like Montgomery?

Virginia T. Pickett.

Tafo, Ghana, W. Africa

Off on Color

After reading Morton Fried's attack on the concept of race in *SR*, Oct. 2, I was surprised to find, in the Oct. 23 issue, a thoughtless expression of unscientific thinking about race on the part of *SR*'s chief book reviewer, Granville Hicks. Reviewing George P. Elliott's novel *In the World*, Hicks referred to "Joe Thompson, a Negro who passes as white"! It seems obvious to me that a man whose skin is so light that he can "pass as white" is not a Negro in any objective sense of the word. Only white racists classify a light-skinned "colored" person as a Negro. I am perfectly sure that Mr. Hicks is not a racist, but he did thoughtlessly express an idea that had its origin in racial prejudice and oppression. (I am aware that Morton Fried would not approve of my using the terms "white" and "Negro," since there are no really white or black people, but how can one avoid these words?)

L. F. Hawkins.

New York, N.Y.

Driven by Distortion

Daniel Stern's review of James Baldwin's *Going to Meet the Man* [*SR*, Nov. 6] was devoted to attacks, more or less veiled (usually less), on Baldwin's personal life and the lives of homosexuals generally. "Infantilism," "sexual special pleading," "subtly propagandistic," and "psychic deformity" were a few among the loaded terms that dotted the review.

May I suggest that, while any distortion of the whole man is unfortunate, it is often some such distortion that drives artists. The particular nature of the distortion is unimportant; what is important is the artist's struggle with it. To ask Baldwin or any other artist to ignore in his work, if he does not so choose, that which makes him go (be it homosexuality or not—I consider Baldwin's case moot), is poppycock.

Allen Hershberger.

Bloomington, Ind.

Wrong House

The review of *At Play in the Fields of the Lord* [*SR*, Nov. 6] called Viking, instead of Random House, the publisher!

Jean Ennis,
Director of Publicity,
Random House.

New York, N.Y.

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The Way to the Man Is the Heart

Sukarno: An Autobiography, *as told to Cindy Adams (Bobbs-Merrill. 324 pp. $6), provides a perspective for the attempted coup in the Southeast Asian republic the end of last September. John M. Allison has been U.S. Ambassador to Indonesia.*

By JOHN M. ALLISON

FOR THOSE who want to know what it is that makes Sukarno, the vain, mercurial leader of 100 million people, tick, here is the answer. According to Bobbs-Merrill, Cindy Adams, the wife of comedian Joey Adams, spent some eleven months over several years helping the Indonesian President tell his story for publication. She has done a good job. I have known Sukarno since the autumn of 1952 and for one year lived in his country as American Ambassador, in which capacity I came into constant contact with him. In this book I can hear him talking again.

Now the events of the attempted coup in Djakarta the night of September 30-October 1 and what has happened since become more understandable. Sukarno, the man who has dedicated his life to molding a unified, independent nation out of the many disparate groups which make up Indonesia, is once again, perhaps for the last time, trying to prevent his country from flying apart at the seams. One may believe, as I do, that he is wrong in the manner in which he is attempting this, but anyone who really knows Sukarno and has made any effort to understand him cannot doubt his love for his people and his determination to see Indonesia take its place as one of the leaders of Southeast Asia.

Sukarno tells how the American Government stopped Marshall Plan aid to Holland after the United Nations Security Council had reported the Dutch had invaded the territory of the Indonesian Republic in 1948 while the Renville truce was still operative. He also refers to the more recent demands in the United States Senate and elsewhere that all aid to Indonesia be suspended. Some of the reasons why U.S.-Indonesian relations went from extreme friendship to almost complete enmity become clear in the pages of this absorbing story.

Sukarno quite rightly complains that the United States Government and many of its leaders have not understood him. But it is equally clear, from what is included in his book, that Sukarno has never really understood the U.S. and its leaders. I'm afraid some of the revelations of Sukarno's beliefs, desires, and actions will repel many Americans, among them the average high-level bureaucrat with his conscious or unconscious inhibitions and generally conventional outlook. Americans are inclined to want their public men, at least in public, to observe all the rules and customs of the tribe. Sukarno is often too frank, too inclined to believe that the normal rules do not apply to him as long as he is helped in his main task of building an independent, unified Indonesia.

However, these foibles should not impede the course of normal government relations and diplomatic contact. On the part of America's representatives in Djakarta they rarely did, but when policy proposals reached Washington it was frequently difficult to get agreement for anything wanted by "that man Sukarno." Too often this disapproval of him was ill concealed, and a bad situation was made worse. Too often Washington has insisted that Sukarno conform to its standards and methods and has not been able or not tried to understand that he is the leader of an Asian people who is acting in an Asian way, which, while it may not be our way, is for them perhaps not too bad.

That Sukarno has not only resented this but that many of his actions have been the result of such American attitudes is made clear in his autobiography. Time and time again throughout the book Sukarno expresses his love and admiration for Americans and what America has stood for in the past. Towards the end of the book he says: "Over the years I have desperately wanted to be America's friend, but she wouldn't let me. She repeatedly mistakes foreign aid for friendship."

He then tells how whenever he travels to Moscow or Peking he is given the treatment befitting the head of a nation of 100 million people, with parades and gun salutes and bands playing the Indonesian national anthem. He is met at the airports by the heads of state and, as he says, "The people with me are proud of me, proud that our downtrodden country has taken its place among the great nations."

When he comes to America, however, he is met by lesser officials, and on at least one occasion, he reports, President Eisenhower kept him waiting almost a full hour in an anteroom before receiving him. To us this may seem a small matter but to the head of one of the new nations, which has but recently come out of colonialism and is crying for recognition and status as an important, equal member in the family of nations, it can be all-important.

Sukarno's experience with President Kennedy, who treated him as an equal, was different. "Perhaps if Mr. Kennedy were still here," he writes, "our countries might not have drifted so far apart."

Many Americans will say this attitude of Sukarno's is childish. He will admit it. In the beginning of his story he complains of people who do not understand

—*Rochelle Girson.*

Balinese purification ceremony following the mass cremations— "an Asian way, which . . . is for them perhaps not too bad."

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him and explains: "They do not all see that the way to approach me is strictly through the heart—that I am like a child."

Sukarno repeatedly insists that he is not and never could be a Communist. This is not only because of his belief in God, which was deepened during his periods of imprisonment by the Dutch, but also because Communism requires slavish obedience, and, as he says, "Anybody who ever came near to Sukarno knows he has too much ego to be a slave to anybody—except his people."

Sukarno has believed the Communists could and should be included as part of a unified Indonesia, and for some time he managed to keep them under some sort of control. The abortive coup of last September 30 seemed to indicate he was losing that control. What the future will bring to Indonesia is still uncertain. However, this book will be an indispensable background for unfolding events. It does much to explain Sukarno's and most Indonesians' preference for Socialism over capitalism, why Sukarno and Hatta could not work together, why Western style parliamentary democracy and freedom of the press have not flourished in Sukarno's Indonesia, and many other fascinating bits of untold history.

Americans may still disapprove of Sukarno but surely after reading this book they must recognize that here is a man who cannot be ignored and who must not be underrated.

The Man Who Lost Russia

Russia and History's Turning Point, *by Alexander Kerensky (Duell, Sloan & Pearce. 558 pp. $8.95), a political autobiography, seeks the causes for the overthrow of the author's Provisional Government by the Bolsheviks in 1917. Harry Schwartz is a member of The New York Times's Editorial Board. His latest books are "China" and "The Soviet Economy Since Stalin."*

By HARRY SCHWARTZ

NEAR the end of this book Alexander Kerensky tells of a 1923 conversation in which a German Social Democrat asked him, "But how could you have lost power when you held it all in your hands?" How many thousands of times since that fateful November day almost half a century ago must that question or its equivalent have confronted Kerensky! One would have to be completely devoid of human sympathy not to understand his internal ordeal these past decades as he has watched the consequences of his defeat.

Kerensky's view emerges clearly enough. His régime was overthrown primarily because of the blows inflicted upon it by the "right," *i.e.*, by those who wanted to replace the young Russian democracy with a military dictatorship, and who accordingly supported General Kornilov's abortive coup of August 1917 with all its disastrous political and psychological consequences. Kerensky considers that his "one great mistake" was in not speaking out clearly enough against the coup, which he knew was being prepared. He considers that the campaign of slander "aimed both at the Provisional Government and at me personally in the wake of the Kornilov affair was undoubtedly one of the major factors in the destruction of democracy in Russia."

There is a goodly measure of truth in all this, for the widespread belief that Kerensky had collaborated with Kornilov and also wanted a dictatorship—but with himself, not the general, as dictator—helped mightily to discredit the Provisional Government. There is also much truth in Kerensky's remarks on the blindness of the moderate leftists, who failed to understand Lenin's true character and goals, and who therefore in varying degrees cooperated with the Bolsheviks, or at least refrained from opposing them vigorously when such opposition might have been effective.

—From the book.

Kerensky in Paris, 1918—he was *the* Provisional Government.

But this is a politician's worm's-eye view of history, appropriate enough on the morrow of a battle, but hardly satisfying as the fruit of almost five decades of reflection. In this view—as in the book generally—the people of Russia and the mighty forces churning them in 1917 appear only dimly, and the impression is given that if only a handful of generals and politicians had been more far-sighted things might have turned out differently.

The thesis would be more defensible if the author had been readier to re-examine in the light of their consequences the policies he himself followed. Kerensky, after all, was practically *the* Provisional Government for most of its short life, the "persuader-in-chief," as he proudly reminds us in a footnote, whose oratorical genius in the first post-czarist months did so much to sway the multitudes toward repect for his régime. But there came a time when Kerensky's speeches no longer exercised their earlier sorcery; they brought only ribald mockery from masses and politicians alike. Was it simply slander that produced this change? The record suggests a negative answer.

The fact which Kerensky fails to recognize is that his own understanding and his own policies did not keep pace with the progressive radicalization of Russia during 1917. That evolution—of which Trotsky wrote so eloquently in his history of those fateful days—was ultimately what determined the outcome. To the bitter end Kerensky remained the classic middle-class radical. His concerns were the need for continuing Russia's participation in the great slaughter of World War I, for full, formal legality in handling the land reform the peasants demanded, for preserving the Russian empire as intact as possible. Kerensky might have held his power longer if he had responded to the cry for peace at any price, and if he had had fewer lawyer's scruples about how the peasants took over land. But then he would not have been Kerensky.

This book is, of course, more than mere self-justification, and it can be read as a fascinating personal memoir of life in Russia between the 1880s and 1917. But self-justification before history is clearly the book's primary objective, and as such it fails. Rather, it tends to make more understandable the judgment pronounced many years ago by N. N. Sukhanov in his irreplaceable account of the Bolshevik Revolution: "I used to say that Kerensky had golden hands, meaning his supernatural energy, amazing capacity for work, and inexhaustible temperament. But he lacked the head for statesmanship and had no real political schooling."

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No Short Cut to Soviet Paradise

The Bolsheviks, *by Adam B. Ulam (Macmillan. 598 pp. $9.95), and* ***Power and the Soviet Elite,*** *by Boris I. Nicolaevsky (Praeger. 275 pp. $6.95), in turn present the intellectual and political history of the triumph of Communism in Russia, and the events leading up to the seizure of power by Khrushchev. Max Nomad, once active in the revolutionary underground of Western and Eastern Europe, wrote "Rebels and Renegades" and "Dreamers, Dynamiters, and Demagogues."*

By MAX NOMAD

ADAM ULAM's book is a cross between Russian revolutionary history and a biography of the Father of Bolshevism, whose original name was Vladimir Ilyich Ulyanov. A well-documented work, such as might be expected from a prominent Harvard scholar, it has, however, some of the shortcomings characteristic of books by historians who were not contemporaries of the events described.

After an introductory chapter about the Ulyanov family, the author plunges, for eighty pages, into the history of the revolutionary ideas professed by Russia's intellectuals from the beginning of the nineteenth century until the 1880s, when the followers of Marx made their appearance.

Lenin's older brother, Alexander Ulyanov, who was executed in 1887, had been under the sway of the old Populist ideology, which envisioned Russia's transition from semifeudalism to a sort of idyllic agrarian socialism without the intermediary phase of capitalist industrialism. Some of the Populists were what their critics called "liberals with a bomb"—terrorists hoping to do away with czarist despotism by the short cut of tyrannicide. These were the heroes of the "people's will," most of whom were executed after the assassination of Czar Alexander II in 1881. However, the terrorists—in the West usually misnamed "Nihilists"—had so impressed Lenin's older brother that he attempted to emulate them. Was it an early insight into the hopelessness of revolutionary terrorism and of the philosophy underlying it that made Vladimir seek another way of avenging his brother? Or was it "contrariness," as Professor Ulam seems to suspect? It took much "contrariness" indeed for a Russian to embrace Marxism at that time, since it was a philosophy whose preachers expected Russia's liberation not from a revolt by the peasantry, constituting 80 per cent of her population, but from the country's industrial development and its still embryonic working class.

It seems to this reviewer that the author, in studying Lenin's career, occasionally did not see the forest for the trees. Most likely his reluctant admiration for Lenin prevented Ulam from imputing to him, in this particular connection, the conscious or unconscious Machiavellism that is the basis of all politics, whether "regular" or revolutionary. In other words, neither Lenin's Marxism nor his hatred for the educated middle and lower middle class was the genuine article. He accepted what was or seemed to be the realistic essence of Marxist philosophy—the class struggle and the economic interpretation of history—as against the naïve utopianism of Populism. And he flaunted his Marxism as a badge of his sophistication, for it was at that time in vogue among the vanguard of Europe's radical intelligentsia. But in his heart, and later in his writings, he rejected the automatic, or fatalistic, aspect of his teacher's very mild revolutionism.

Marx did not believe in the possibility of a socialist revolution in an underdeveloped country; he did not believe that revolutions could be prepared or made by a determined minority of conspirators or professional revolutionists. In Marx's opinion, revolutions were either spontaneous or the result of a military defeat. Lenin, on the other hand, believed in the determining role of professional revolutionists and of their conspiracies. There is no doubt that the high opinion he had of himself and of his capabilities—after all, he was a genius, if ever there was one—led to his theory that a man's will, and particularly a great man's will, may overcome unfavorable circumstances.

LENIN'S main political tenet—the indispensability of an organization of professional revolutionists—offers the key to his alleged hostility to his own class, a hostility that Professor Ulam seems to explain only by his "contrariness" and "ambivalence." By setting up an élite of dedicated rebels—educated members of the middle or lower middle class, with a sprinkling of self-educated ex-workers—Lenin quite understandably turned emotionally against all the other men of education who, without risking their necks, as did Lenin and his followers, might eventually become the beneficiaries of *his* revolution. For that revolution at first aimed only at the overthrow of czarist absolutism; hence it was bound to elevate the political and the economic status of the entire bourgeoisie, both the capitalist property-owners and the noncapitalist owners of education. He also felt bound to attack the intelligentsia because he met with the political competition of other groups of radical intellectuals. Moreover, there were maverick currents within the radical movement whose spokesmen

(*Continued on page* 95)

—*Camera Press (Pix).*

Lenin inspecting troops in Moscow's Red Square in May 1919—"contrariness."

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PICK OF THE PAPERBACKS

One of the outstanding paperbacks of the month is *Confessions of a European Intellectual* (Collier, $2.95), Franz Schoenberner's recollections of Germany from the eve of World War I to the maniacal events of 1933. First published twenty years ago and only now making its appearance in Germany, *Confessions* recalls Dr. Schoenberner's career as editor of *Simplicissimus,* the internationally famous political-satiric weekly. When storm troopers smashed and looted the editorial offices, Schoenberner escaped to Switzerland, France, and finally the United States. "My opinions haven't changed much during the past two decades, though I now think of myself as a European-American," he remarked during a recent interview in his New York apartment. The son of a Berlin pastor and heir to a liberal humanist tradition, Dr. Schoenberner identifies himself with what he terms the "intellectual middle class." During the 1920s his circle was composed of Lou Andréas-Salome, friend of Nietzsche and Freud; Rilke, Knut Hamsun, and D. H. Lawrence. "Politics was not considered quite decent by the intelligentsia, certainly not a fit subject for a salon. They merely resigned from political life," he said. "Yet intellectuals have a responsibility to be interested in their country's political life, a serious, moral obligation. Now I think Germany is developing a certain intellectual life again. Yes, for future Germany I am beginning to be a little bit hopeful."

It's open season for almanacs. Three have just been published, each bearing the traditional yellow cover and hole in the left corner for hanging on a peg, each claiming to be the oldest, the most enduring, and promising the most reliable weather predictions. *The Old Farmer's Almanac* (Dublin, N. H., 35¢), still bearing the original 1792 Robert B. Thomas byline, is edited by the able Robb Sagendorph, who as Abe Weatherwise predicted a few years ago the Eastern drought. This year he foresees its end. A new arrival in America is *Old Moore's Almanack* (Dell, 35¢), first published in London in 1697 by Dr. Francis Moore. Here predictions abound, some nonclimatic such as Good Asian Trade in January followed by Royal Romance in May. Palmistry, lucky numbers, and the horoscopes of seven top jockeys help you make your own forecasts. *The American Home and Farm Almanac,* edited by Ray Geiger (Pocket Books, 35¢), is an expanded new edition of the giveaway *The Farmers' Almanac,* which has a free distribution of more than two and a half million. Mr. Geiger became editor thirty-two years ago as a young philosophy major fresh from Notre Dame. "Our weather predictions are 85 per cent accurate," he said during a visit to New York from his home in Lewiston, Maine. "Give or take a few showers. Lots of brides write to me asking for a sunny weather date. Usually we're right, but even if it rains, most brides are so happy it doesn't matter." Americana—homemade remedies for wasp stings, recipes for "pioneer stew," and dowsing techniques—are his specialty. Geiger also collects and prints verse. "I know a lot of it is homey, even corny, but people like to read it."

Around Books: The first national conference on "The Role of Paperbacks in Education," sponsored by Teachers College, Columbia University, in cooperation with American Book Publishers Council and the American Textbook Publishers Institute, gathered some 500 educators and book people from all over the country. Said Dr. Vivienne Anderson, conference coordinator: "We want our children to develop self-direction, yet we herd them into a classroom and hand them each the same book to read. We're trying to get away from the idea that all ninth graders, for instance, have to read *Silas Marner* or use one big anthology as a classroom crutch. Paperback classroom libraries can present an enormous variety of subjects and authors, and guide our youngsters to develop independent attitudes." —ROLLENE W. SAAL.

Fiction

The biggest novel of the month—based on heft (416 pages), payment for reprint ($400,000), and accolades received (National Book Award, International Book Prize)—is Saul Bellow's *Herzog* (Crest, 95¢). Moses Herzog bewails his plight, marital and otherwise, yet almost in spite of himself he endures, with triumph. A much tidier package is Bellow's earlier (1956) *Seize the Day* (Crest, 60¢), whose nonhero Tommy Whilhelm's troubles in marriage are a symptom of universal woe.

James Purdy is most frequently referred to as "an original talent," which means that his singular prose defies classification or sometimes, indeed, comprehension. Certainly he uses ideas with shock value, as in *Cabot Wright Begins* (Avon, 75¢), a harrowing novel about a rapist. Similarly, in *Color of Darkness & Children Is All* (Avon, $1.25), which includes short stories, a novella, and plays, mostly bold and incisive, Purdy employs the Lennie Bruce frontal attack to illuminate the human experience.

The British sense of humor usually consists of a chuckle rather than a guffaw, and the volumes that comprise Anthony Powell's *A Dance to the Music of Time* exemplify the best of the form. *A Question of Upbringing, A Buyer's Market, At Aunt Molly's* (Berkley, 75¢ each) begin in English schools, Eton and Oxford, and follow the characters through shifts in relationship both personal and professional. The silvery humor of Muriel Spark leads the people in *The Comforters* (Avon, 75¢) through a light-fingered and extended joke about a genteel septuagenarian who heads a band of smugglers.

Also noted: Eric Ambler's *A Kind of Anger* (Bantam, 75¢), blackmail and intrigue on an international scale and in the Ambler mode; Doris Lessing's *A Man and Two Women* (Ballantine, 75¢), which ranks with the works of Mary McCarthy and Simone de Beauvoir in its forthright attitude about freedom for all and liberty especially for women; Thomas Berger's *Little Big Man* (Crest,

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95¢), an absurdly funny big-scale Western.

The Natural World

The writing of nature books demands a special skill: the author must balance enthusiasm with unabashed sentiment. Dogs, horses, even otters have lent themselves to charming studies, and now Farley Mowat in *Never Cry Wolf* (Dell, 50¢) has written a thoroughly engaging study of a most unlikely and unloved creature. This story of an Arctic safari in quest of lupine life goes a long way toward restoring the wolf to the honor it held in ancient Rome. A highly poetic book is British naturalist Henry Williamson's *Salar the Salmon* (Signet, 60¢), a fictionalized account of a stout-hearted fish's mysterious return from the sea to its inland river spawning ground. Can Salar survive the perils of predators long enough to make the arduous trek home? He can and does in an unusual nature tale. Marston Bates's *The Forest and the Sea* (Vintage, $1.65) is far more straightforward. "Science has put man in his place," writes zoologist Bates, "one among the millions of kinds of living things crawling around on the surface of a minor planet circling a trivial star." His is a contemplative book, though crammed with information about how creatures adapt themselves to their world. Ivan T. Sanderson has an uncommonly keen eye for the bizarre in nature, from the Jumping Tommy-Goff snake to the black howler baboons. In his *Living Treasure* (Pyramid, 75¢) the author chatters away with his customary good humor about the adventure of being a naturalist in the snake- and insect-ridden tropics. He almost makes it sound like fun. William K. Gregory's *Our Face: From Fish to Man* (Capricorn, $1.65) carefully traces the human visage, feature by feature, back through time. Not recommended for the anti-evolutionist.

Victoriana

Victorian England was a time of high hopes and optimism, of self-satisfaction and sugary sentiment. But it was also, as *The Earnest Victorians* (Hawthorn, $2.45) shows, an age of ferment which fostered such totally different and startling beings as Cardinal Newman, Charles Darwin, Lord Ashley, General "Chinese" Gordon, Dante Gabriel Rossetti, and Elizabeth Barrett Browning, each of whom, in this collection assembled by Robert A. Rosenbaum, is recalled in his own words and those of his contemporaries. W. L. Burn's *The Age of Equipoise* (Hill & Wang, $1.85) reflects upon mid-Victorian years, those years between 1852 and 1867 when prevailing opinion held that hard work, good will, and a righteous heart would make all things possible. "Every age is entitled to its comforting illusions," writes British historian Burn, "and the mid-Victorian Englishman (so far as such a person existed) had grounds for believing that he was, if not the captain of his soul, the master of his fate." This self-confident if mythical character was able to steer a clear course through the uncertainties of a century emerging into the modern industrial age. One Englishman whose life mirrored his century was John Ruskin (1819-1900). A child prodigy, he was first a poet, then a painter, and finally an "esthetic visionary," a critic whose writings remain the final word on the art of his time. *The Literary Criticism of John Ruskin* (Anchor, $1.75), edited with a thorough introduction by Yale University's Harold Bloom, marks the limits and the excesses of Romanticism in letters and art.

E. Douglas Branch's *The Sentimental Years* (Hill & Wang, $2.45) deals with life in the United States between the Presidencies of Andrew Jackson and Abraham Lincoln. It was a time when "Altruism and evasion, the pebble of fact and the cement of illusion . . . builded the American tradition of being socially comfortable, practically successful, spiritually progressive, and privately warmed with self-esteem." This cheerful era glowed with utopian communities, the 1850 debut of Jenny Lind to banners hailing "Welcome Sweet Warbler," and the triumphant tour of Chiang and Eng, the Siamese twins. A delightful social history.

To know Picasso was to exist in a luminous atmosphere where the celebrated, from Matisse to Chaplin, Cocteau to Dominguín, came to call. Françoise Gilot's *Life with Picasso* (Signet, 95¢), written in collaboration with Carlton Lake, recalls her decade with genius.

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A Brief Return from Mecca

The Autobiography of Malcolm X, *written with the assistance of Alex Haley (Grove. 455 pp. $7.50), and* ***Message to the Blackman in America,*** *by Elijah Muhammad (Muhammad Mosque of Islam No. 2. 355 pp. $5), help explain why so many Americans, of whatever color, have been impressed by the Black Muslim movement. Emile Capouya's essays on contemporary problems frequently appear in SR.*

By EMILE CAPOUYA

SINCE *The Autobiography of Malcolm X* has considerable importance as a historical document, it seems appropriate to say at once that it appears to be more nearly the subject's own story than is generally the case in literary collaborations. Mr. Alex Haley strikes me as a particularly tactful and responsible writer, and everything we know about Malcolm X suggests that he was impatient with other people's inspirations. There is reason to believe that this autobiography is very close to being just that, including the fact that it reproduces rather fanciful speculations on the history of mankind, some examples of romantic philology, and an original answer to the mystery of who wrote Shakespeare—none of which Mr. Haley would care to subscribe to in his own person, if I am not much mistaken. Further, in his lengthy and interesting epilogue, Mr. Haley gives an account of his method of working with Malcolm X that I find convincing on the question of whose book this is.

The implied strictures among the foregoing remarks typify my attitude toward Malcolm X during his lifetime, and I suppose that they represent the majority opinion still. As long as he was a follower of Elijah Muhammad, I was repelled by what I knew of his economic and social program, his irreconcilable attitude toward the whites, the puritanism of the Nation of Islam's moral doctrines, and the bad grammar of the sect's newspaper, *Muhammad Speaks.* The Black Muslim demand for a separate state within the United States I regarded as a piece of cynical demagoguery, or perhaps just plain foolishness. What it came down to is that Malcolm X was talking revolution, his own variety, and since that was not the same as mine, I could

—*Pix.*

Malcolm X—"shattered and renewed."

fall back on all the familiar excuses for not using my imagination. When Malcolm X parted company with Elijah Muhammad, made his pilgrimage to Mecca, returned bearing a more conciliatory racial message, and began to involve himself in direct political activity, I grew slightly more sympathetic.

NOW that he is dead, and the social forces to which he gave expression are for the moment thwarted, I can see how badly I misjudged the man and the movement. It has taken me a long time, but I begin to see why many Negro intellectuals, and radicals black and white, were so impressed by him, applauded his intransigence while he was alive, and felt personally diminished by his death. Right now, in this country, every man stands between the devil and the deep blue sea. The ideals we profess as a people have scarcely any other function than to color greed at home and violence abroad. We are in a moral and political crisis. Almost alone, Malcolm X knew it and declared it; his doctrine was cast in terms of race, but that was very nearly an accident. Those who responded to his intuition of what was happening to us understood him whether they were Negroes or whites. I think that any reader who is at all accessible to the message must be moved by his autobiography — ingenuous, often mistaken about elementary facts, sometimes less than charitable, but mostly true and mostly very important.

The *Autobiography* begins with these lines:

> When my mother was pregnant with me, she told me later, a party of hooded Ku Klux Klan riders galloped up to our home in Omaha, Nebraska, one night. Surrounding the house, brandishing their shotguns and rifles, they shouted for my father to come out. My mother went to the front door and opened it. Standing where they could see her pregnant condition, she told them that she was alone with her three small children, and that my father was away, preaching, in Milwaukee. The Klansmen shouted threats and warnings at her that we had better get out of town because "the good Christian white people" were not going to stand for my father's "spreading trouble" among the "good" Negroes of Omaha with the "back to Africa" preachings of Marcus Garvey . . . [They] spurred their horses and galloped around the house, shattering every window with their gun butts. Then they rode off into the night. . . .

That was a good start. The family moved to Lansing, and there their house was burned down by incendiaries. Some years later, Malcolm's father was run over by a streetcar, under circumstances that might suggest he was killed first. His widow struggled to feed and clothe six children, endured the officious charity of official agencies, and eventually lost her mind. Malcolm was raised thereafter in foster homes and reform schools, until his quick intelligence won him the chance to attend the public high school in Lansing. He was one of its best students, and he thought of becoming a lawyer; a realistic teacher advised him that a man of his race might better aspire to be a carpenter.

Malcolm says that at that point he began to see the light. He took a bus to Boston, and got a job as bootblack in a Negro dance hall. There he learned about the dignity of labor, and the perquisites an intelligent concessionaire can hope to enjoy. He embraced the religion of music and dancing, and the sacramental narcotics and stimulants that go with it. Then he got a job on the railroad, as part of a diner crew. Once he saw Harlem, he transferred his operations to that city, worked as a waiter in Small's Paradise, and on losing that job started life as a hustler, peddling reefers —and when that went sour, pulling robberies and stick-ups, and steering white customers to Negro prostitutes. He went back to Boston and carried out a series of robberies there. Dope made him reckless. He was caught. In jail he first heard of Elijah Muhammad and the Nation of Islam.

From his own account, it is clear that Malcolm X was shattered and renewed by the experience of religious awakening. The absolute character of his con-

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version is testified to by the uncompromising puritanism of his later life. The addict and thief made of himself a monument of sobriety and disciplined energy. Most impressive of all, under the stimulus of religious conviction Malcolm's intellect unfolded. In prison, the functionally illiterate graduate of Lansing High School taught himself to read and write, taught himself to study history, sociology, and political theory, taught himself to speak.

Elijah Muhammad's *Message to the Blackman in America* is a compendium of the doctrines and attitudes that Malcolm X assimilated during his stay in prison, and studied and preached on his release. It collects together writings and speeches composed by Mr. Muhammad over the last thirty years, and at first sight it is a tissue of absurdities, repetitive, monitory, sublimely indifferent to common sense. In which particulars it resembles the scriptures of most of the great and minor religions. If we set aside class prejudice and race prejudice, Mr. Muhammad's creation myth is just as good as the one the Western world has adopted from the ancient Hebrews, and it serves his purposes much better. In these matters the test is not scientific probability but poetic necessity. Tertullian said, "I believe *because* it is impossible," and his position is perfectly orthodox.

Naturally, it is repugnant to read that the white man is a devil, but a moment's reflection shows it to be a reasonable deduction from the experience American Negroes have had with him. To enslave and oppress and exploit Negroes, to humiliate and patronize them, is certainly devilish work, and that is what large numbers of white men have been up to. If we didn't know that before, this book would tell us so, for nothing short of agony could have inspired these pages. Where the Black Muslim analysis falls short is in attributing to the white man an intelligent pursuit of evil. That is much too flattering. The white man, like every other man, is a poor devil, but not otherwise diabolic. He is greedy and frightened and prone to believe what his betters tell him—and that makes him a dangerous neighbor when he is in a position of advantage. By way of example, he is just now getting ready to persecute men who are trying to persuade him not to kill and be killed in the next general war. The Black Muslims' overestimation of the intelligence, resolution, and power of the white majority amounts to superstition.

On other questions, Mr. Muhammad's book often carries the stamp of genuine prophecy, in that its admonitions are too entirely reasonable not to seem lunatic in the world we have somehow become accustomed to. Mr. Muhammad says to the American Negro, there are twenty

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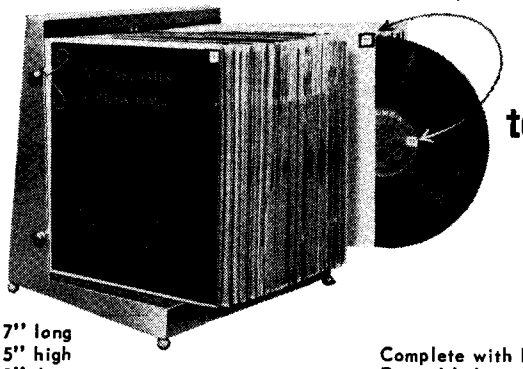

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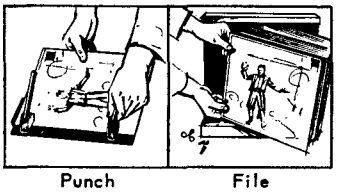

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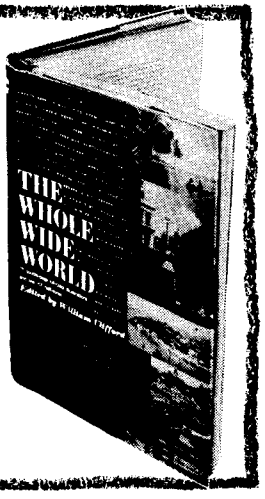

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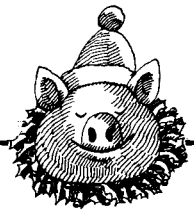

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million of you—how is it that you own nothing, control no legislatures, consistently do the hardest work for the least pay? Isn't it because you work for one white man who takes most of the fruit of your labor, trade with another who gets most of what's left, and gamble or drink up the rest, so that that money eventually finds its way to his pockets, too? And what Mr. Muhammad here expresses in racial terms is true the world over in class terms; that is what the Negro intellectuals and the white radicals and the college students were responding to in the person of Malcolm X, the man who wasn't having any. For the system is insufficiently edifying; even those who enjoy its rewards are secretly ashamed of it.

Mr. Muhammad's prescriptions, and those of Malcolm X while he was still within the fold, make simple political and social sense. If twenty million Negroes were to tax themselves at the rate of a dollar a month, he says, that would make a war chest of over $200,000,000 a year. The fund could be used to establish Negro-owned businesses, maintain schools, possibly buy legislators. With their economic base assured, Negroes could make effective economic demands. And they could make a good start toward economic security by banking the money that now goes for cigarettes, liquor, and gambling. The first step is self-respect, moral and physical regeneration. The next is intelligent cooperation. The only visionary part of this doctrine is that it is too sensible to be generally adopted—by the Negroes or by the American nation as a whole. Its ultimate significance is that it points out the political efficacy of the boycott and the general strike.

It is easy to be impatient, on moral and intellectual grounds, with black nationalism and *négritude*. Nevertheless, I think it is quite wrong to equate these attitudes with traditional racism. Black nationalism is not the mirror-image of white supremacy because the relation of overlord and underdog is merely reciprocal, not equivalent. Racial pride fanned up under forced draft is a psychological necessity for a people that has been racially denigrated. Without an enhanced sense of self they can make no concerted social effort. Negro nationalism is at once a measure of how hard the black man has been stepped on in the past and a guarantee that he won't be stepped on in the future.

IN the end, Malcolm X was disappointed in the personal character of Elijah Muhammad—whom he had revered as his personal savior and as the living God—and fearful that the political integrity of the Nation of Islam might be compromised by Mr. Muhammad's alleged failings. On being expelled from the movement, he went to Mecca and made a triumphal tour thereafter of nationalist Africa. I have no doubt that Malcolm's religious pilgrimage was undertaken in a spirit of perfect reverence, but it was a stroke of political genius for all that. He was received in Africa as the spokesman for the American Negro, and he came home with that prestige as his working capital. He had to find new goals and new policies that would attract a group of militants, as he had earlier attracted adherents to the Nation of Islam. He was no longer sure that secession was feasible for the American Negro; and in part because some white Moslems abroad and some white college students at home were offering him the respectful attention he deserved, he began to retreat from the theory that the white man was a rapist and exploiter by theological necessity.

Malcolm's new prestige and his freedom of action made him doubly dangerous. While composing his autobiography, he said repeatedly that he thought he would not live to see it in print. His house was bombed. He applied for a permit to carry a pistol, and apparently none was issued. He was assassinated at a public meeting, and the man who personified both the nation's degradation and the nation's desire to rise above its sordid history to realize its ideal of honor, was safely dead.

—From the book.

Malcolm X at Long Island University—"prestige as his working capital."

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The Case Against Corruption

***Despoilers of Democracy,** by Clark R. Mollenhoff (Doubleday. 411 pp. $5.95), demonstrates, through accounts of actual cases, how political corruption still flourishes amid a conspiracy of silence. Nat S. Finney is Washington correspondent for the Buffalo Evening News.*

By NAT S. FINNEY

THIS deeply distressing book is the product of a decade of exceptionally competent investigative reporting by an indefatigable Washington correspondent, whose bona fides combine professional training in both journalism and law. It is not, despite its title, a sensational report, but a factual recitation of a series of cases that have raised doubts about the probity of federal officials—abuses in the foreign aid program, the mismanagement of a secret postwar stockpile program, the operations of Billie Sol Estes, the arbitrary award of defense contracts, a celebrated miscarriage of Civil Service procedure in the matter of Otto Otepka, and the so-called Bobby Baker case in all its ramifications. The author, Clark R. Mollenhoff of the Washington Bureau of the Des Moines *Register* and the Minneapolis *Tribune*, does not pretend to reach verdicts; he simply sets forth the evidence and invites the concerned reader to draw his own conclusions.

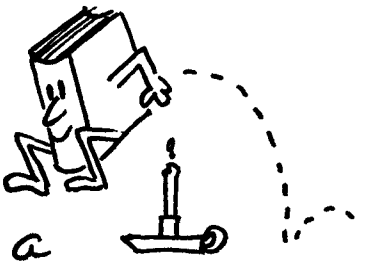
Two of his case studies, the opening one about Jerry M. Jackis, a foreign aid employee, and a later one about Otto Otepka, a personnel security officer at the State Department, describe the fates of civil servants who had the misfortune and temerity to "blow the whistle" on their superiors in the federal hierarchy—a "crime" unlisted in the code but heinous nonetheless. In another such case, presented as a footnote to the Billie Sol Estes matter, N. Battle Hales, a civil servant who tried to work within the unwritten canons of civil service ethics, was punished by appointive officers who apparently could not understand the rules of the government game. These studies, while likely to attract less interest, are exceedingly important, for good government must be expert as well as political.

This reviewer finds it hard to take much interest in the so-called stockpile scandal, yet Clark Mollenhoff is right to include it as an illustration of the fact that if you put the banana within the monkey's reach there is going to be some grabbing.

The true centerpiece of *Despoilers of Democracy* is the TFX contract, if for no other reason than its exemplification of the warning with which President Eisenhower closed his Administration: "In the councils of government, we must guard against the acquisition of unwarranted influence, whether sought or unsought, by the military-industrial complex. The potential for the disastrous rise of misplaced power exists and will persist. . . . We should take nothing for granted. . . . Only an alert and knowledgeable citizenry can compel the proper meshing."

Reporter Mollenhoff pursued the award of a nonesuch contract for these aircraft from the first signal of arbitrary action to the collapse of the inquiry after President Kennedy's assassination. Mollenhoff came out of the ordeal bristling with unallayed suspicions, but frustrated. There never was a plausible answer to the question of why Secretary of Defense McNamara handed this $6-billion-dollar contract to General Dynamics, and for all his bloodhound diligence Clark Mollenhoff doesn't produce one. But he does make a thorough case that in a government based upon consent there simply must be answers. A society that is incapable of compelling answers to questions of genuine public moment is no damned good. The answers may be impalatable and their consequences impolitic. In the TFX matter the Department of Defense may well have placed the contract with General Dynamics to rehabilitate a sick company. However hard this would have been to swallow, it would have been defensible as an action to assure the existence of industrial suppliers in time of trouble. But neither this nor any other intelligible answer whatever was offered, and that, entirely aside from any question of despoiling, is reason enough to throw the rascals out.

The Bobby Baker case still rumbles in the corridors and anterooms of power in Washington, and there is no one better qualified to trace its origins than Clark Mollenhoff. He was, in the judgment of some of his friendly and respectful colleagues, more deeply involved in the case than is professionally wise.



The spectacle of an employee of the Senate defying the inquiries of his erstwhile employers is bad enough, but the slavish condonation of such contumely by legislators sworn to defend the public interest is worse. Hardest of all to bear is the complacence of just those people whose interest is insulted—the "knowledgeable citizenry" in which President Eisenhower reposed his confidence. Clark Mollenhoff got angry about the torpor that existed in Washington during the Baker inquiry, and at the electorate's indifference to the stench. In his fury he offended enough of his associates to spark a challenge to what should have been his routine election as president of the National Press Club. He was narrowly defeated by a rump candidate in a contest that does the Washington press corps little credit.

Mollenhoff gives his readers an "inside view" of the Walter Jenkins case, and discloses that he had learned from Donald B. Reynolds that President Johnson's man Friday had a morals squad record months before another arrest brought the matter into the open. It is this reviewer's suggestion that the reader let this chapter steep in his mind until all the implications are brewed out of it. Did the silly reporter who asked President Johnson whether he knew of Jenkins's degeneracy expect a different answer from the one he got? Is the "national security" the private toy of the party in power? Whose "captive" was Jenkins?

Despoilers of Democracy should be must reading for anyone who still wonders what the Reverend Francis B. Sayre, Jr., was talking about when he described Lyndon Baines Johnson as lacking in the moral integrity a President should bring to that high office.

Yet Mollenhoff's concluding chapter is no more satisfying than President Eisenhower's invocation of an alert and knowledgeable citizenry. The book leaves it very clear that political operators can stupefy the citizenry and corruption be protected by a conspiracy of silence. The answer—if there is one—must be mechanical, not moral. The old axiom, "when in doubt, vote against the candidate with the most seniority," may provide a clue. It has been observed before that there is no tyranny like an excessive majority, and certainly the picture Clark Mollenhoff presents is of a majority run amok, the old "public be damned" attitude that invariably characterizes a régime too long in power. The public itself has become too doctrinaire about its politics, and lost sight of the prophylactic exercise of the franchise.

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Good Will Is Sometimes Fatal

__The Savage State,__ by Georges Conchon, translated from the French by Peter Fryer (Holt, Rinehart & Winston. 222 pp. $4.50), concerns a young UNESCO worker whose faith in interracial brotherhood is strained when he finds his estranged wife living with a Minister of a fledgling African republic. Patricia MacManus is a free-lance writer and critic.

By PATRICIA MACMANUS

"AVIT had a taste for misfortune. . . . He was not the type of man to be content with his very latest vexations. Everything else had to be chewed over . . . everything which tended to confirm his bad luck in his various undertakings. . . ." However, at twenty-six, Avit isn't only an injustice collector: he is the holder of a law degree and a job with UNESCO; an earnest liberal. He is also "the last of a long line of French policemen, schoolteachers, and tax collectors" —and an abandoned husband. There you have him as he arrives in Fort Jacul, capital of an African republic just emerging from French colonialism ("rich in nothing, not even in promises"). There you have him, the hapless protagonist of a tale with more dramatic impact and cautionary truth than Graham Greene's hotly debated *The Quiet American* of several years ago, to which *The Savage State* is conceptually akin, though in no way imitative. A Prix Goncourt winner (sales in France at the 260,000 mark), here is a prize novel that lives up to its billing.

Avit arrives in Africa not only exuding sociopolitical good will, but confident that in this brave new black world he will be finally cured of Laure, his entrancing young wife who, two years before, ran off with a swashbuckling trader, Gravenoire. Almost at once, in Fort Jacul, he discovers that this is where his wife and Gravenoire had settled; but the blow irremediable comes when he learns that Laure has since left her swashbuckler for a French-educated native, Doumbé, a brilliant Minister of the fledgling republic. Avit the husband is heart-stricken, repelled; Avit the zealous emissary of interracial brotherhood is ideologically sundered: "That Laure should belong to a Negro . . . her little breasts, her little belly. . . . Avit was not a racist. Of course he was not a racist. But the idea sent a shudder through him." Doumbé's affair with the white woman has for months caused this tinderbox community of newly authoritative blacks and newly displaced white *colons* to smolder. It is Avit who unwit-

Your Literary I. Q.

Conducted by John T. Winterich and David M. Glixon

GRINGO LINGO

We have had bilingual word-lists for French-English and German-English, and now Elinor Klamath of San Francisco has devised one for Spanish-English. The words she lists in all three columns are English, but those in Columns One and Two are also Spanish. You are first asked to consider those in Column One as Spanish and to match them with their English equivalents in Column Two. You are then asked to consider the words in Column *Two* as Spanish, and to pair them with *their* English equivalents in Column Three. (Thus *liar* is the Spanish word for our verb *fagot*, and *fagot* is Spanish for *bassoon.*) *Respuestas* on page 48.

formal ( )	1. ALAS	whether ( )
flexible ( )	2. AS	tree trunk ( )
mar ( )	3. MOLE	know ( )
plaza ( )	4. PIE	jelly ( )
ay ( )	5. REGULAR	stretch ( )
sable( )	6. ROB	likely ( )
tan ( )	7. PLACE	wings ( )
pastel ( )	8. SABER	ace ( )
lunar ( )	9. SEA	soft ( )
pillar ( )	10. TENDER	pleases ( )

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Georges Conchon—"a wrenching reality."

tingly puts the match to the tinder.

The resultant drama is unfolded with a sureness of ironic purpose and a tautness of narrative style seldom encountered in today's garrulously subjective "serious" fiction. Each of the principals, even in their metaphorical aspects (always a risky modern-mode device), emerges with a wrenching reality: Laure, the physically and spiritually frail girl-woman; Avit, unable to shore up himself, much less anyone else; Gravenoire, an egregiously cynical nobody; Orlaville, the colonial hold-over Superintendent of Police, a self-mocking spectator of the human comedy; and Doumbé, indeed a man and a leader of men, trapped in a love that the hate-laced world of Fort Jacul (and beyond) bestializes in its own image—Doumbé who, impelled to a desperate act of quixotic chivalry, brings on the *Walpurgisnacht* climax to the tale.

But in the final tragi-comic mélee it is Orlaville—the seemingly ambiguous Greek-chorus figure—who assumes a dangerous moral commitment and is brushed by grace—barely brushed. And is that one passing brush not enough to ask? M. Conchon seems to say "Yes"—*vis-à-vis* a world where man's savagery to man often erupts in moments and *milieux* that demand of ordinary humans too much self-transcendence, whatever their color, their heritage. And he is certainly saying that not only is good will alone not enough; it is sometimes fatal. In *The Savage State* he has produced an arresting work of art with a cutting edge that draws real blood.

Leslie Jackson

Man Adapting
René Dubos

Why is one man healthy while another is diseased? René Dubos contends that the answer may lie with man's ability to adapt. Focusing on the individual human being who must meet the emergencies of the day as well as the uncertainties of the future, Dr. Dubos suggests that his state of health is the expression of his success — or failure — to adapt to environmental challenges. This thesis of the individual man adapting and responding to his environment bears a close relationship to Theodosius Dobzhansky's theme of the evolution of mankind as the result of the interaction of genetic and cultural forces, a topic discussed in his prize-winning book, *Mankind Evolving*. (cloth $7.50, paper $2.45).

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A letter from Martin Luther King, Jr.

Dear Friend:

Ten years of progress in the South have resulted in fewer deaths than *five days* of violence in Los Angeles. The adherence to nonviolence by Southern Negroes has won major social and political victories with a minimum of bloodshed.

The rage of the hopeless in Los Angeles forced the nation to face ugly facts but not yet to deal with them. Submerged by hopelessness and lacking nonviolent leadership, the frustrated victims of subtle and covert injustices in the North rioted as much against themselves as against their oppressors.

Our organization, the first to employ mass nonviolent direct action, is faced with a challenge. Many Negro leaders are urgently calling us North. We must respond because out of our work in Montgomery, Birmingham and Selma nonviolent direct action techniques were born which have never systematically been used in the North.

However, our major work continues to be in the South. Our successes in stimulating national legislation present us with hugely expanded Southern programs. We must intensify the work in which we pioneered—voter registration. We must continue to develop programs of community organization, political education and our unique projects of self-help literacy education. We must assist those who are being reborn as citizens to employ the rights of citizenship responsibly and effectively.

We need the financial support of all people of good will—of all races and beliefs. Contributions are more than money—they are affirmations of confidence in and dedication to democratic change. Please send your check today and be a part of America's most imperative moral and social mission.

With warmest good wishes,

Martin Luther King, Jr.

Martin Luther King, Jr.

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Politics and Plum Pudding

Those Who Love, *by Irving Stone (Doubleday. 662 pp. $6.95), draws on primary sources for its portrayal of John and Abigail Adams. Wilson Sullivan, a free-lance critic, is a student of the Revolutionary period.*

By WILSON SULLIVAN

IRVING STONE's latest venture in the biographical novel is disappointing—more scenario than *mise en scène*; his encounter with John and Abigail Adams of Massachusetts seems brittle, judicial, and contrived. And more's the pity, for Stone has done exhaustive research in primary documents. He is familiar, for example, with Leonard W. Levy's brilliant critique, *Jefferson and Civil Liberties: The Darker Side.* Yet Stone falls short of his subjects. The Adamses are no more credible because more maudlin, no more palatable politically because shrouded in folksy veils of well-salted cod, plum pudding, wine sillabub, and the argot of physiocracy. The novel is always too tidy. One has the feeling that, Adams's monarchist petulance notwithstanding, all is well with his flinty world because the rolls are just about due in the Dutch oven.

It is clear that Stone has chosen a hero, and will have no other before him. Cousin Samuel Adams emerges as an obtuse, if amiable, incendiary; Thomas Jefferson as a vaguely impertinent, if patrician, Francophile. Adams's political opponents are presented at best as fumblers or conjuring wheeler-dealers, and at worst as "traitors" or "traducers," as Mr. Stone sets his stage for what must be described as a restrained apologia for the Alien and Sedition Acts—incontestably among the most tyrannical laws in American history. The fact that Adams's own Federalist press heaped incredible personal calumny on his Republican rival, Jefferson, is left for Abigail to note in an arch aside.

In the same tendentious vein, Abigail is made to cluck with pride that John Adams's very own (sic) Declaration of Independence is accepted by the colonial rebels except for "a number of stylistic changes," and the "deletion of John's page on the abolition of the slave trade." The implied villain, of course: Jefferson's South.

Irving Stone's portrait of John Adams himself comes much closer to his mark. Adams is presented as the Anglophile

—*Bettmann Archive.*

Abigail Adams, in a portrait by Gilbert Stuart, and John Adams in a portrait by an unidentified painter after an original by Gilbert Stuart.

marginal monarchist he clearly was, deeply opposed to numerical democracy and mob violence, ethnically snobbish, and committed to an overriding American Presidential power. He is drawn, tangentially at least, as a man convinced —like Jefferson—of the existence and total propriety of a natural aristocracy of the mind. And his belief in the law as the sole power able to codify, govern, and uplift human behavior, without favor to friend or foe, is nicely defined: "The law which does not defend your opponent will have vanished when it's your turn to need it."

The novel is twice too long, informing us, for example, how to make soap of grease, wood ash, and lye; or how many logs Abigail put on what fire on a given day in 1761. The conversation is often epistolary, betraying Stone's too close reliance on documents in preparing the novel. The literary style is intermittently baroque: "Time assumed the architectonic form of an onrushing symphony. . . ." And love between the Adamses bears, ever, the eiderdown warmth of the rural snuggle-bunny. If John is too prophetic, too right, "Nabby" Adams is too nice, too fragile, too understanding. And if she knows, at a family feast, how to "lift her elbow high" in enriching the punch, she emerges for all the world as the child of *Clarissa.*

LITERARY I.Q. ANSWERS

Column One should read: 5, 10, 9, 7, 1, 8, 2, 4, 3, 6. Column Three should read: 9, 4, 8, 6, 10, 5, 1, 2, 3, 7.

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Where Rich Is Better

A Dedicated Man and Other Stories, *by Elizabeth Taylor (Viking. 224 pp. $4.95), collects twelve tales about privilege and its absence in England. Charles Simmons is assistant to the editor of The New York Times Book Review, a short-story writer, and author of a recent novel, "Powdered Eggs."*

By CHARLES SIMMONS

ENGLISH writers immediately establish the social station of their characters.

"Etta's desire was to belong." (Lower, looking up.)

"Where the lawn was in shadow from the house, the watering-spray flung dazzling aigrettes into the air." (Upper, or upper-middle. We'll soon see.)

"Nothing could have been lovelier, Rose thought. For most of the day she stayed on the little balcony, looking over the flooded fields." (Lower, and sentimental besides.)

"The boat brought people back and took others away. In summer it came three times a week to the island, and the sisters, sitting outside the waterfront café . . ." (Upper-middle, away from home.)

"Four widows lived in the almshouses beside the church." (Guess!)

"In the dark, raftered dining-room, Silcox counted the coned napkins . . ." (Lowest. Servant.)

"The imitation suède jacket came by the post at breakfast time . . ." (Guess!)

"The furnished flat in a London suburb . . ." (Guess again!)

These are the opening words in the first seven of Elizabeth Taylor's twelve stories. Artful class-ifying is the soul of British fiction, and from Chaucer to Sillitoe it has been a drag, dragging down the possible human responses of all but the best-born characters, fixing the attitudes of audiences as surely as do the badman's black hat and the jester's tasseled cap. D. H. Lawrence shocked England, not by his posy-twining, but by exhibiting an aristocratic sensibility out of working-class origins. *That* was revolutionary. Before Lawrence, only poets, poetic license in hand, dared do it.

I'm a middle-class American of middle-class parents and reasonably conscious of the social distinctions in my head and land; but to me they have economic and cultural significance. They do not contain, as they do for English writers, poignant, tragic, or humorous fictional possibilities. Literary place-putting bores me; perhaps its reverse accounts to some extent for the popularity of American fiction in England, where, God knows, readers must be sick of the game.

This is a lot to hang on Miss Taylor, particularly since she writes well, makes her minor points about the human situation, works hard, and does her best. And perhaps it's unfair, too, because her heart has sound right and left chambers. That is, she shows that to have money and privilege in England makes a better life and probably a better human being, while also showing that not to have them can kill a man. It's just that this English truth is not universal.

Consider the title story, which is the most imaginative of the collection. The dedicated man, Silcox, is a waiter who has been working at a hotel frequented by vulgar patrons. He conspires with a waitress there to go as a married couple (married couples are more employable) to another hotel with a finer clientele, a clientele that would appreciate his high waiting style. As man and wife they share the same quarters. They sleep in separate beds, dress and undress in secret, and generally have little to say to one another beyond discussing stratagems to maintain the fiction of their married state. One of the stratagems is to exhibit a picture of an adolescent boy, whom they, when asked, will claim is theirs. For the waitress the illusion turns into a delusion.

Besides the fact that such improbable psychology requires at least a novella to make it convincing, the subject of dehumanization of the servant class does not, I think, speak loud to Americans; it doesn't speak to me at all. I understand that it is possible; but I live in a country that kills men the way Ralph Ellison describes.

More than half the stories in this collection are class-framed. Of the remainder the best is "In a Different Light," which tells of a young married woman who goes alone to visit her recently widowed sister on a Greek island and meets there an attractive married Englishman who is fulfilling a lifetime dream by seeing Greece. They almost make love, almost fall in love; but time wins out and puts them back into Eng-

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lish suburbs, where they meet again later among their families and understand that their attraction was to Greece more than to one another. It is well written, and there were moments under the blue sky and fiery sun that made me think of (and wish for) D. H. Lawrence.

Seeking the Isles of the Blessed: In the wake of all the current scholarly disputation over who really did discover America comes Anya Seton with a work of pure entertainment. While *Avalon* (Houghton Mifflin, $5.95) takes us to the Norse settlements in Iceland and Greenland, and to a "Culdee" colony in the New World, and gives glimpses of Eric the Red and his son Leif, the story is chiefly concerned with Rumon and Merewyn and the love, which, though constantly thwarted by fate and bad timing, persists throughout their lives.

Rumon, descendant of Charlemagne and Alfred the Great, is a Provençal prince of mystical bent, torn between a longing for the religious life, the cravings of the flesh, and a secret dream of going in search of Avalon, the legendary "Isles of the Blessed" where King Arthur was supposed to have been borne upon his death. Rumon has also taken a vow of nonviolence, a difficult oath to keep in the tenth century, when violence was a part of everyday life and was apt to be direct and personal instead of comfortably vicarious. On a trip to England to visit his cousin, King Edgar, he encounters Merewyn, a Cornish girl who believes herself to be descended from Arthur but is actually the offspring of a Viking raider who raped her mother and killed her supposed father. Charged by Merewyn's dying mother to keep the secret of the girl's birth and to take her to her aunt, an abbess at Bath, Rumon agrees grudgingly. At Edgar's coronation the beautiful but unscrupulous Queen Alfrida takes a fancy to Merewyn and makes her a lady in waiting, while Rumon, infatuated with Alfrida, rejects Merewyn's love because of her origins.

How Merewyn is found by her Norse father and taken by him to Iceland; how Rumon, discovering Alfrida's true nature, has a change of heart toward Merewyn and sets out in pursuit of her, only to have his ship blown off course to "Great Ireland and the country of the Merrimacs"; how eventually he reaches Merewyn only to be rejected in his turn, form the burden of the second half of this long and episodic novel.

A number of the historical premises are still subject to controversy, but it is doubtful if this will trouble many of Miss Seton's readers. She lacks the power displayed in, for example, Robert Graves's *I, Claudius* and Mary Renault's *The Last of the Wine* to make the past almost tangible; but then, the Greeks of the Peloponnesian Wars and the Romans under the Caesars are in many ways closer to us than the Saxons and Norsemen of the late 900s.

—Ruth L. Brown.

Closing a Family Wound: Anne Tyler was born in 1941. At twenty-two she published her first—and well-received—novel, *If Morning Ever Comes*. And now here she is again, still much too young, with *The Tin Can Tree* (Knopf, $4.95). Certainly, it is unfair to harp on the lady's age but difficult to ignore it. You read and you wonder. On page after page she offers proof of a maturity, a compassion and understanding one would expect to find only in a more seasoned heart than hers could possibly be.

The scrubby, little tin can tree of the title grows back of the three-family house shared by the Pikes in the Southern tobacco town of Larksville. The tin cans occasionally rattling in the wind are the last earthly token of six-year-old Janie Rose Pike's existence. Janie Rose, who decorated the tree with them during her "religious period," was killed in a tractor accident. Opening with the child's funeral, Anne Tyler's novel focuses, during the days immediately thereafter, on her family and their closest friends and especially on ten-year-old Simon Pike, Janie Rose's brother. This is a novel rich in incident that details the closing of a family wound and the resumption of life among people stunned by the proof of mortality. As one of the characters puts it: "Bravest thing about people, Miss Joan, is how they go on loving mortal beings after finding out there's such a thing as dying."

Not only because she is describing a family death and in part a child's reaction to it, but also because of her ability to evoke the feel of summer in a small Southern town, does Anne Tyler's *The Tin Can Tree* call to mind James Agee's memorable *A Death in the Family*. She is too fine a stylist, too sure a craftsman to have her novel weighed against Mr. Agee's. However, the Agee novel does offer a clue to why one only respects *The Tin Can Tree* without being deeply moved by it. Mr. Agee gave us time to meet the father before death was allowed to remove him so that we could grieve for him with his family. Miss Tyler introduces us to the Pikes after Janie Rose's passing. We have never known her alive so cannot mourn her dead. We can observe and sympathize but we are still outsiders during the period of adjustment. As a result, what lingers longest in the mind when the last page of *The Tin Can Tree* has been turned is the savor of an author's talent rather than a novel's content.

—Haskel Frankel.

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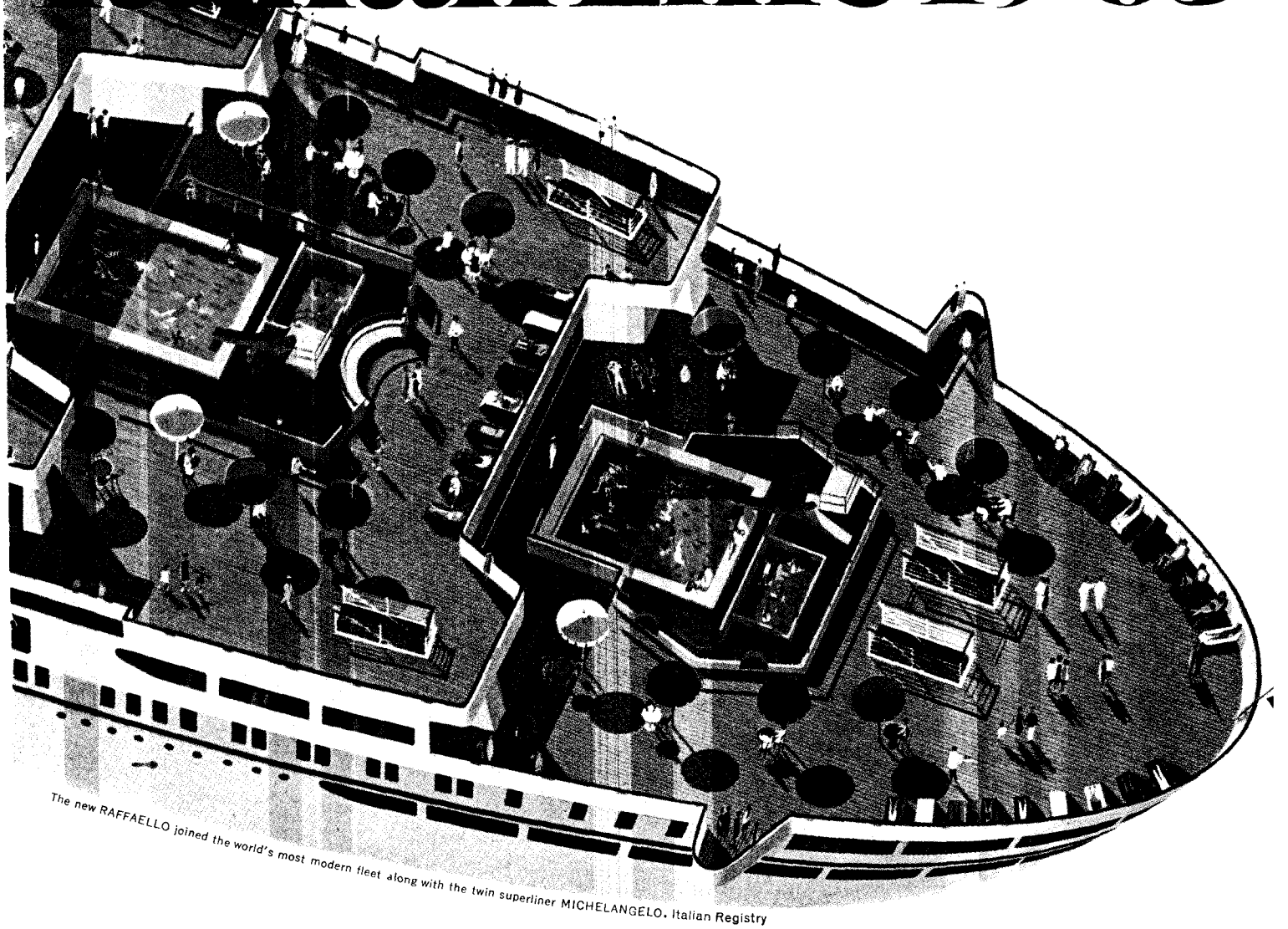

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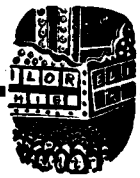


Carnival of Spirits

THE BETTER European film directors appear to be challenged, of late, by color, and assume, quite rightly, that a lot remains to be discovered about its uses. Bergman went in for pastel effects in his disappointing *All Those Women*; Resnais used sober, subdued tones for *Muriel*; Antonioni was reminiscent of contemporary painting in *Red Desert*. Fellini, in his new film, *Juliet of the Spirits*, has outdone them all, though, dazzling us with his use of color and his scenic virtuosity. Even so, I find myself wishing that he and the others would hasten back to their more familiar black and white. For in the case of *Juliet and the Spirits*, the story of a middle-aged woman facing abandonment by her husband and beset with the fears and torments of loneliness, the prodigal inventiveness and the lushness of the imagery eventually work to cause the domination of manner over material.

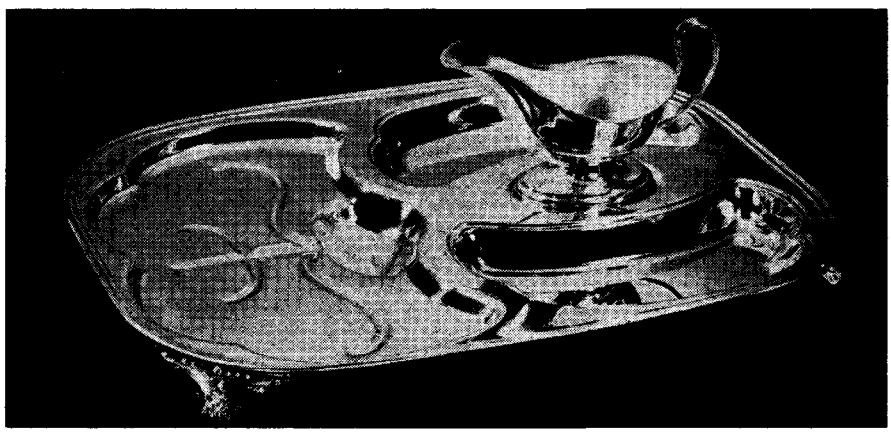
For, clever, fanciful, and imaginative as the film is, it somehow doesn't manage to get much below the surface psychology of a woman (played by Fellini's wife, Giuletta Masina) whose problems aren't too much unlike those of any suburban housewife in Connecticut suddenly made aware that her husband isn't around much any more. Of course, Fellini can take a soap-opera subject and, out of his immense talent, make something marvelous; and, to a degree at least he has done this here. Nevertheless, if it weren't for Masina's mobile, expressive face, the crinkles of humor around her eyes, the touch of the waif in her personality, the character she plays wouldn't seem too different from certain regulars on afternoon television: she's devoted, sweet, lives a nice upper-middle-class life, and is given to dreaminess and fantasizing.

Once Fellini leaves her mundane world he's superb. The apparitions the woman calls up—presumably from the depths of her subconscious—are strange and menacing, Freudianly erotic, shot through with surrealistic nostalgia. Next door lives a luxuriously kept lady who indulges in some fanciful infidelities, including love-making with two young men in a treehouse on her estate. In a blend of reality and dream Juliet goes to a party given by the mistress, she encounters all the appurtenances of an orgy, but manages to stay "good" through it all. The outcome may be banal, but Fellini makes it phantasmagoric in its opulence of form and texture.

This is the way it is through much of the film. Touching and often delightful as Masina is, the "spirits" she calls up are more interesting than she. As always, Fellini has found faces—haunting, bizarre, expressive—and these give the film its greatest strength. They help the director exceed the bounds of his relatively restricted story and add an almost poetic depth and richness. Bad spirits or good, it is they who turn the movie into a gorgeous human circus.

FROM Japan comes another noteworthy film in color, *Kwaidan*, and one that contains more than its share of spirits—for the three stories by Lafcadio Hearn on which it is based make full use of ghosts and allow for the eeriest of effects. The first story tells of a Samurai who, out of poverty, leaves his hard-working wife, marries the shallow daughter of a rich nobleman, and then eventually returns to his first home, where he finds again the woman he truly loves. That is, he *thinks* he does, for the morning after brings a jolting surprise. After this clammy beginning, the second tale of the trilogy delves considerably further into supernatural territory, recreating an eleventh-century sea battle between two powerful clans (and with the most brilliant of color and sound effects), then picking up seven centuries later for its ghostly and horror-filled climax. The third tale is a baffling ghost-in-the-mirror joke, presumably meant for comic relief. If the film moves slowly at times, it is superbly mounted, and belongs, it seems to me, on any carefully selected list of great movies of the supernatural. My own list would include *Dead of Night*, *Ugetsu*, and now *Kwaidan*. The direction is by Masaki Kobayashi, and *Kwaidan* also contains acting of stylized artistry by Misako Watanabe, Takashi Shimura, and Katsuo Nakamura.

The Leather Boys is an English film that was made two or three years ago and has been belatedly imported here because one of its stars, Rita Tushingham, is more famous now (*The Knack*) and because its director, Sidney J. Furie, has become noted for *The Ipcress File*. Late or not, the movie should be heartily welcomed, for in spite of its unprepossessing title it tells a story of compassion and strength—surprisingly so, since it deals with those fellows who sport leather jackets and buzz town and countryside in swarms of motorcycles. Part of the success of the film is due to the convincing acting by Miss Tushingham, Colin Campbell, and Dudley Sutton. The first two play lower-class lovers who embark on a hasty youthful marriage for which neither is in the least prepared. The husband retreats to his motorcycle and the companionship of another leather-jacketed friend, and not ducked in the least are the homosexual implications of the relationship. In fact, Mr. Furie deals more sensitively and delicately than any film I have seen with that touchy material. And somehow, no matter how grimy the surroundings his camera examines, there is always a feeling of prevailing compassion that raises *The Leather Boys* to a level of distinction. —HOLLIS ALPERT.



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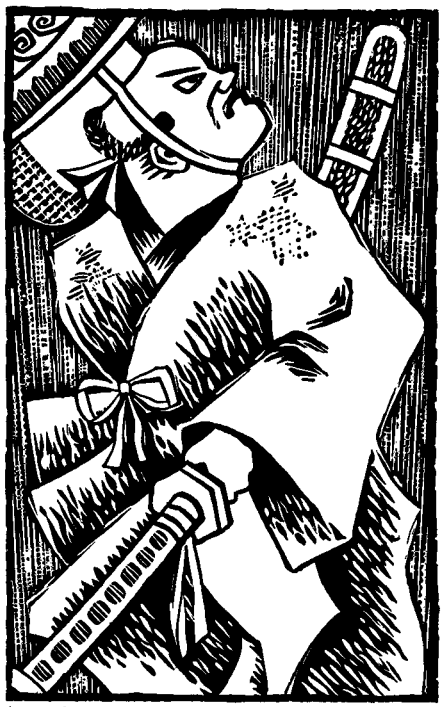

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A Chip of Old China

THE PEARL RIVER courses down through China, splitting the city of Canton, then widening into a gaping mouth before it spills into the South China Sea. Near the lip on the eastern side is the appendage that is Hong Kong, rather resembling the shape of the delta as it distributes the tributaries of the Mississippi that pour into the Gulf of Mexico below New Orleans. Far across the wide mouth of the Pearl River, hanging on the opposite lip, is the tiny, wormlike peninsula of Macao and its attendant islands, a colony of Portugal half a world away from its motherland. Its galleons have been stopping there on the way to Japan since 1516. It has been Lisbon's remote responsibility since 1557, which is to say, sixty-three years before the *Mayflower* put to sea for America and a year before England's first Elizabeth came to the throne.

Macao was a convenient stop on the great journey from the Tagus clear to Goa. From there the galleons of the traders went onward to Malacca and then to Nagasaki. It fell to the fortune of the Portuguese that the Chinese forbade direct traffic with Japan, so that Lisbon's ships were engaged to carry China's silk to market in Japan, and Japan's silver to China. By the middle 1600s it was also trading as well in gold, pearls, perfumes, spices, and drugs between Tonkin, Cochin China, Cambodia, Macassar, and Solor. Besides doing a thriving business it was also an outpost of Christianity in the East.

Today Macao traffics in tourists, fish, firecrackers, matches, incense, gold, and gambling. It likes to call itself the Monte Carlo of the East. It hasn't quite become that yet, but it has pretensions, and there are always plans on the drawing board. It is about a tenth the size of Liechtenstein but has about twenty times the population of that cranny in the Alps. Separated by a narrow strait and a land border from Communist China, it receives new refugees daily, many of whom try to press on to Hong Kong. It is serviced by no international airline, and no international cruise ships stop there. Anybody who wants to come to Macao from the outside world can, depending upon his nation's relations with China, either float down the Pearl River in a ferry from Canton, sixty-five miles away, or come over from Hong Kong.

The last time I was in Macao I came by a small Italian plane that took off from the airport at Hong Kong and landed in the water at the edge of Macao. We flew high over the islands and splashed into the South China Sea fifteen minutes later. For the return voyage we chose the *Fat Shan*, a broad-beamed steamer that seemed to have sailed right out of a late, late movie. It took three hours and then some for the journey back to Hong Kong, and we shared the journey with an exotic assortment of Chinese and Westerners. For those making the journey at night or desiring privacy, it had cabins. But new times have come to old China. This time when I joined some friendly travelers—Marc Connelly, who was touring the East for a new novel, Caskie Stinnett of *Holiday*, and Axel Dessau, a displaced Dane—for the journey to Macao we took the hydrofoil.

There are two hydrofoil lines that make the run now, one sponsored by Hong Kong and Macao interests and the other, appropriately painted red, put on by the Red Chinese. The American consul in Hong Kong prefers that American citizens do not book passage on the Reds' red speedboat. As for the non-Communist boats, they are immensely comfortable, with deep seats, air conditioning, and a lackadaisical little refreshment stand on board. Like all hydrofoils that I have ridden, these in the East have a tendency to yaw, but the crossing is fast enough, cutting the time to about an hour and a half. On the way over we passed the *Fat Shan*, still plodding its way over, belching steam all over the South China sky, and carrying with it memories of a thousand intrigues.

Once on the dock at Macao, the Western passengers are assailed by glib guides bearing impressive badges that read "Turismo Macao." The guides leave little doubt that they are official government representatives. They offer to help passengers through customs and invite them to leave their passports to be threaded through the customs formalities by functionaries. Passengers can pick up their papers later at the "office in town." It is only after one falls prey to this deception that the masquerade is dropped and the guide is ready to talk money. In our case he thought a short morning and afternoon tour ought to be worth about $25 U.S. for the four of us. As our first bit of sightseeing we suggested that our guide take us to the government tourist office, and I invite you, should the shakedown system still

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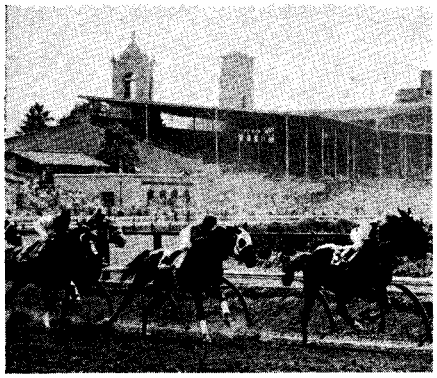

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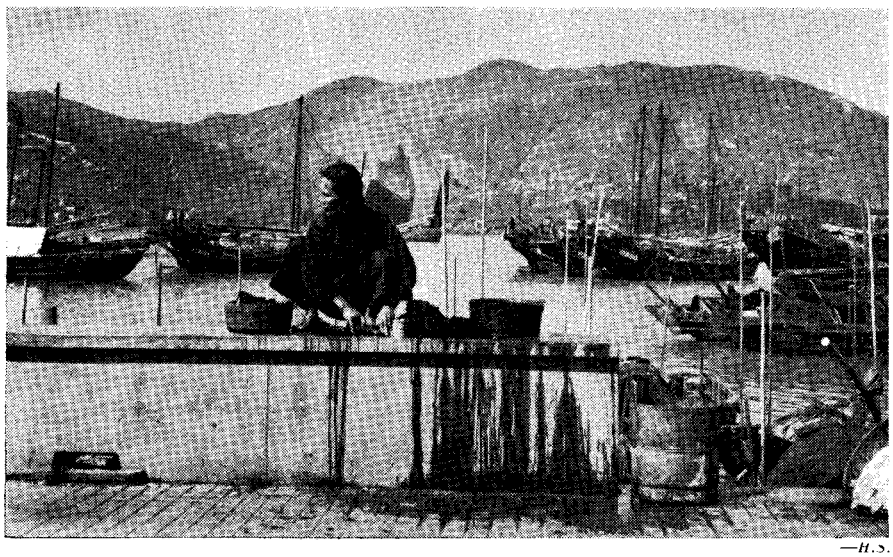
be in operation, to do the same. I would warn you that this indefatigable cicerone made one dying attempt to pass off the headquarters of Turismo Macao, which is indeed a commercial travel agency, as the official government office. He finally heeded our importunings and we were shortly in official hands.

We asked our new guide to take us down to the waterfront, where the *Fat Shan* still comes because it requires deep water. (The hydrofoils, less perilously, come in on the leeward side, away from the Chinese gunboats.). Across the straits, seemingly no wider than the Rappahannock, lay Lappa Island, Red Chinese territory. The pillboxes, fifty yards apart, were in plain sight, and Peking's blue gunboat lay menacingly on the water. The junks, with their huge, ragged, beige sails, floated by in slow motion. On the wharf at our feet lay pitiful bundles of rags and a broken length of wood. The rags were the clothes worn by the refugees in their swim to freedom, perhaps during the night; the length of wood had served some escapee as a float. There are agents, it is said, who ask $1,000 Hong Kong ($1 U.S. is worth $5.41 HK) to deliver a refugee down the Pearl River to Macao. Running battles between gunboats and armed junks have broken out, bringing spectators down to the shore, and on occasion the Portuguese gunboats have sped out to warn off the Communist boats.

We drove up to the land border, and as we slowed down a Red Chinese truck passed us, filled with cargo. The African soldiers in their red fezzes and khaki uniforms who once guarded the Portuguese side are gone now, no longer dependable after the trouble in Angola. Over this border come most of the refugees, some braving capture or death and some dispatched by the Chinese themselves. Hundreds upon hundreds of "useless mouths" have marched across the checkpoint, pushed into Macao by the Communists because they were old or lame or mentally afflicted or blind. The sightless have come in processions, each keeping a hand on the shoulder of the person in front. But for those who leave Red China without permission, the crossing is different. A favorite place, despite the danger, is Duck Channel, a temptingly narrow strip of marshland. Looking across the watery field with its tufts of marsh grass, we could see the round pillboxes. The last time I stood at this spot, some years ago, a funeral procession marched up, on its way to deliver the deceased to his last resting place in the soil of the homeland. A coffin maker maintains a business near the border, for well-made coffins are hard to find now in China. In the early days of the Bamboo Curtain the guards allowed funeral processions through the barrier without examining the coffin. But these loose laws have since been tightened, and now guards open each casket.

The morning had been less than joyous, and we hoped that lunch would help our spirits. We repaired to the Hotel Estoril on the Avenida Sidonio Pais in downtown Macao. It had been built in 1962 and has forty rooms (fifty-five more are being built). It has such improvements as air conditioning, an Olympic swimming pool, and a spotless European restaurant. But above all it has a gambling casino, and in the full flower of midday, when we entered it, the floor was jammed with Oriental customers playing a dice game called High and Low, and pulling the handles of slot machines imported from the culture centers of Nevada and still blazing such Western come-ons as "Strike a Bonanza!"

The gaming parlor in the Estoril and another floating casino, formerly an ornate Hong Kong restaurant that used to be anchored in Aberdeen, take the place of the old nine-story Central Hotel once



—H.S.

The harbor at Macao—pillboxes, cricket fights, and intrigue.

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operated by the Fu syndicate, which held a twenty-four-year monopoly that finally ran out in 1961. In its great murky days the Central, for the benefit of its clients, also maintained a number of restaurants, a cabaret, teahouses, snack bars, massage parlors, mahjong rooms, and even a cricket stadium. Long a popular pastime in old China, cricket fighting is still a gambler's sport in Macao. Crickets inhabit most of the gardens of Macao, but for some unexplained reason the feistiest crickets are to be found in the cemetery, where they are caught with lights and nets by the fearless trappers of the Voice of Autumn Club, controllers of Macao's cricket gambling. Female crickets don't fight, but a robust male is trained on lotus seeds, rice, and ginger, weighed in before a fight, and finally nettled with a brush. In anger he wrestles with his opponent, with an evenly matched bout lasting for perhaps half an hour. The winner crows, or rather chirps, loudly, the losers pay up, and the owners of the championship cricket can look forward at season's end, about mid-October, to a street parade complete with flags, banners, and bugles.

Although there is no published provision for a cricket stadium, Macao will have a garish new Casino Hotel by 1967. A model now on view in the Estoril shows a 350-room de luxe hotel, to be increased to 500 rooms. The eight planned restaurants include one to serve Portuguese food, another for Oriental fare, and a third, to be built on pilings above the pool, for seafood. With a view toward attracting perhaps the Elks or the American Legion, the new hotel is also installing a huge convention hall.

Macao often has a warm and gentle European air that is hard to find in Hong Kong, except for the serenity of the Repulse Bay Hotel. The courtyard of the town hall, with its arches, balconies, busts, and dripping vines is a nook that is old Portugal. The sunbathed walks along the sea could be transplanted from any Mediterranean village. The Pousada de Macau, with its rooms and its kitchen producing roast pigeon à la Portuguaise and baked chicken soup and apple fritters, is hardly distinguishable from an inn in the Algarve. And the curlecued façade of the Cathedral of São Paulo, pyramiding its columns and its arches like a troupe of tumblers, with its grand staircase laid out like a stone runner at its feet, could well have decorated almost any street in Europe. In this case it happened to have been built by Japanese Catholics from Nagasaki who worked from the designs of a Portuguese priest. The church was completed in 1637, but all save the façade and the stairway were lost to a fire more than 100 years ago.

In the square in front of the façade, on the steaming afternoon we came to look at it, men worked under huge coolie hats drying newly glued firecracker casings on the old cobbles. We drove up to a resettlement area, and as soon as our car was spotted children tumbled out of the small square buildings and began tamping on firecrackers that lay on tables, and a horribly bent old woman, leaning on a stick and looking like the most hideous character in a fairy tale, came to watch them. The children get thirty cents a day for their labors in this cottage industry. The main fireworks factories are on the lonely and craggy island called Taipa, where, should they explode, the city would not be periled. Taipa is also being used as a rehabilitation center for opium and heroin addicts, many of whom were swept up from the gutters of Canton and dumped over the border for the West to feed and rehabilitate. Some of the addicts have weighed as little as seventy pounds on arrival, but medical and psychiatric treatment turns the useless mouths into useful people who learn how to farm, weave rattan, and make noodles.

Despite these miserable realities, Macao manages to be soft and languorous and European. It even affects that Continental form of mayhem, the auto rally, staging a Grand Prix de Macao every November. The Red Chinese trucks may rumble up to the border on one side of the colony, but on the gentle side, facing the sea, there are new hotels like the Matsuya, which has adopted a Japanese name, so it is said, to attract Japanese tourists. From its terraces there is a broad view of the junks and one can see the hydrofoil as it speeds from the dock and rises on its skids for the race back home. And one can see the *Fat Shan*, its curl of smoke rising above the horizon long before it arrives and long after it has left, carrying a hold full of stories, as it plods back and forth, faithful as the family dog, across the South China Sea.

—Horace Sutton.

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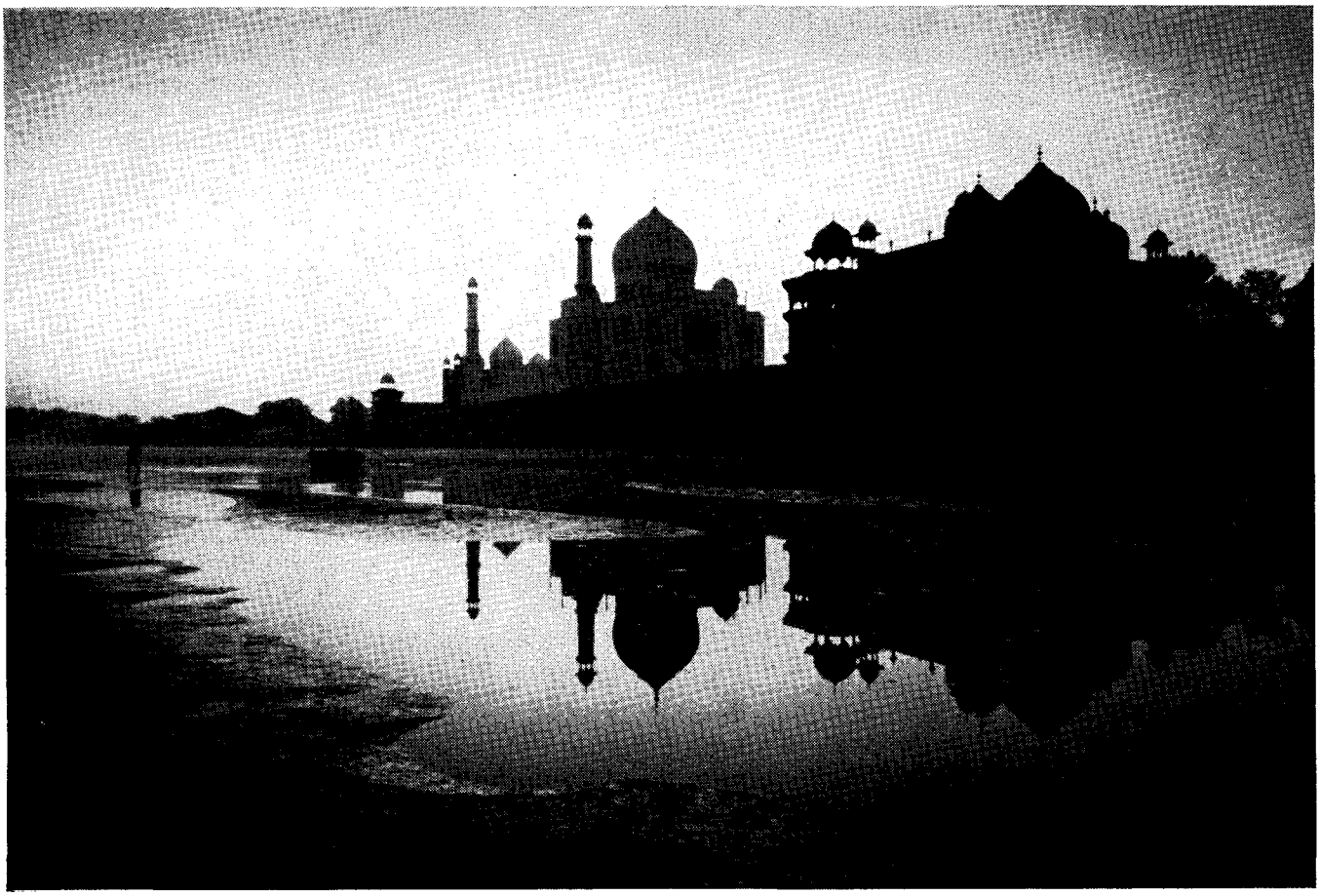

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Augmented Theater

TEN YEARS AGO there were only a half-dozen or so resident professional theaters located in cities outside New York. The wages were pitifully low and they were obliged to make do with relatively inexperienced or mediocre actors. Today there are almost thirty such theaters, and the wages, according to a study in the latest issue of the *Tulane Drama Review*, are somewhat more respectable. There remains, however, the nagging problem of obtaining the top talent required for exciting productions of old plays.

One obvious solution is the engaging of special higher-salaried talent to augment the company for a particular production. At the Dallas Theater Center, director Paul Baker has done just this for his deluxe presentation of *The Tempest*. He began by commissioning Danish artist Björn Winblad to create rich and imaginative designs that evoke the marvel-ridden world of Shakespeare's play. Then to play Prospero, he imported Michael O'Sullivan, whose Tartuffe was the top dramatic acting feat of New York's 1964-65 season.

This ambitious and well-planned production emerges as a visual feast. Against projections of undersea flora, richly caparisoned actors constantly surfeit our eyes. However, the success of the designs to some extent defeats Shakespeare. For the actors become fairy-tale puppets, and even Mr. O'Sullivan's tempestuous portrayal of Prospero has difficulty combatting the competition of so much color. But because he doesn't give up, his clashing emotional presence gives some sense of dramatic unrest to an otherwise restful color-bath.

The formula of augmentation can be helpful at the university level, too. More and more colleges are coming to realize the value of importing professional performers and directors for short, intensive periods of work with their students and faculty in rehearsal and performance of a play.

At the University of Oklahoma's new 668-seat Rupel J. Jones Theatre, the forward-looking head of the School of Drama, Nat Eek, is most pleased at the results obtained by bringing from New York performers George Grizzard and Barbara Baxley and from London director Frank Dunlop for an inaugural presentation of *The Taming of the Shrew*. In it, Mr. Grizzard plays Petruchio as a man of the world, suave and calculating and at the same time a bit melancholy at the ease of his success. As Kate, Miss Baxley gives one of the best performances of her career as she makes Kate's shrewishness emerge from anger at the world. But what is best is the way this pair works together to create and sustain an underlying sexual attraction that nudges their stormy relationship to a triumphantly harmonious end. Mr. Dunlop has surrounded their sophisticated mating dance with a Christopher Sly sequence set in a Wild West dance hall, and although the setting of the main story is Renaissance Italy, we happily pardon Jerry Hargis for fashioning his amusing Grumio after the somewhat anachronistic image of Bonanza's "Hoss" Cartwright.

While there is no substitute for experience and star quality, a resident theater company can, with sufficient funds, engage potential stars and provide for their development into first-rate artists. A shining example of this is being furnished at Minneapolis's Tyrone Guthrie Theatre, where the company's most recent offering, *The Caucasian Chalk Circle*, turns out to be the finest achievement in this theater's distinguished three-year history. And significantly its success depends almost entirely upon artists who have patiently worked their way up together.

MOST importantly, it is the company's Assistant Artistic Director, Edward Payson Call, who has recreated Brecht's dramatic parable with so inspired a sense of how to use this theater's open stage. By constantly keeping alive the relationship between the prologue's villagers, whom he seats around the periphery of the stage, to watch the play performed for them, the audience feels that it is in the Caucasus with them, and even that it is watching the play-within-the-play with the same concerns as the townspeople's. Lewis Brown's costumes make a fine show of what country people might be able to produce out of everyday materials, plus some more elegant relics that they conceivably might have acquired. Herbert Pilhofer's music is unpretentious yet special, and serves the words beautifully. As the peasant girl Grusche, Zoe Caldwell displays a fervor of sincerity that makes us forget her occasionally British inflections and her natural sophistication. And Ed Flanders, always an excellent character actor, has deepened his performance to make the outrageously comic judge, Azdak, a desperately real figure without losing any of the fun. It is remarkable proof that augmentation can also come from within. —HENRY HEWES.

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SR's Check List

Continued from page 26

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Two Cheers for the Met National Co.—*Miss Julie*

CONSIDERING THAT it started with a sizable financial nest egg, no preconceptions, and the blessings of two prominent institutions, one would look for the Metropolitan Opera National Company to show something of a consistent program, point of view, or mode of procedure. What has been seen in the first week of its first New York season at the State Theater in Lincoln Center is a curious collection of divergent impulses, mixed attitudes, and inconsistent objectives.

This is the group organized under the leadership of Rise Stevens and Michael Manuel of the Metropolitan Opera, in collaboration with the John F. Kennedy Center for the Performing Arts in Washington, with the twin purposes of bringing live opera to parts of the country where it is rarely seen, and providing performing experience for talent that is more than postgraduate but less than wholly professional. What has been seen of the repertory in the first week—the order of presentation has been Rossini's *Cenerentola* (or, better, Günther Rennert's *Cinderella,* for it is being given in English in a new version by him), Puccini's *Madama Butterfly,* and Bizet's *Carmen,* in English as well as the original language—left little doubt that both objectives will be accomplished. It left some doubt, however, of the quality level of the results.

Easily outstanding is a presentation of *Butterfly* that profits immeasurably from the direction of Yoshio Aoyama, who created the parent company's distinguished production and has perhaps even exceeded that accomplishment in the tightly knit, beautifully integrated playing of the young people at his disposal. It has been colorfully set by Ming Cho Lee, with a simple but atmospheric frame house of natural wood. In the first presentation (casts vary) the music was well and warmly sung by Francesca Roberto, a Metropolitan Audition winner, as Butterfly; Enrico Di Giuseppe, something of a tenor laureate at the Brooklyn Academy of Music, who uses his pleasant, light voice skilfully, as Pinkerton; John Fiorito, a graduate of the Metropolitan Studio, who could disguise his youthful appearance but not the youthful thrust of his good baritone voice, as Sharpless; and Huguette Tourangeau, whose solid Suzuki was almost of the current quality of the parent company. With Samuel Krachmalnick as conductor, the offspring was a credit to its heredity.

This was substantially less so with *Carmen,* which had a skimpy decor by Bernard Daydé (a rickety, ladder-like staircase in the first act threatened to give way any moment) and a curious combination of realism and symbolism in the direction of Louis Ducreux. Carmen, for example, could be identified as the one with the bare feet. There was, otherwise, no great identity between the vocalization of Dorothy Krebill, whose quavery production is, at her age, no augury of a long career, and the needs of Bizet. It was slightly above "workshop" quality, but not, to my hearing, good enough to merit the prominence it enjoyed Nicholas diVirgilio, as Don Jose, showed the same kind of light tenor that he has in a variety of concert engagements with orchestra in recent years, but not much flair for the stage. Ron Bottcher came closer, in vocal substance and dramatic projection, to a future Escamillo. As Micaela, Mary Beth Peil (another Metropolitan Auditions winner) was pretty to hear as well as to see. It was noticeable that several performers who sing leads in other works were cast among the smugglers and other ensemble parts in this one. Robert La Marchina's conducting set a spirited pace for the prelude, and it was sustained most of the way. But neither the setting nor the direction came close to the sense of fitness that characterized *Butterfly.*

LEAST agreeable, to my taste, was the treatment of *Cinderella.* The matter of taste is stressed because some otherwise reasonable people believe that this kind of broadly farcial, hokey, and overdirected treatment is just what "opera buffo" requires. Perhaps. But what it certainly doesn't require is the kind of deviation from the original in which a slipper is inserted even though Rossini preferred that the lost piece of property be a bracelet; the sisters are more of the Whoops family than of Don Magnifico's; a character picks up a chair and walks off stage holding a high note all the while; members of the ensemble trot on and off in simulation, perhaps, of high spirits; and every page of the thesaurus of theatrical trivia has been thumbed to find a usable sight gag. Add the kind of English translation (by Ruth and Thomas Martin; may their tribe decrease) that rhymes "serious" and "mysterious," and the bill of particulars is fairly drawn. It is the kind of thing some find terribly gay and some find merely terrible.

The set by Beni Montresor, on the other hand, is fanciful (when the colors do not get out of hand), though it duplicates the treatment he invented for Menotti's *The Last Savage*—scene changes in the view of the public, a shuffle up and down of backdrops, and side pieces that flap into place almost on cue. What it comes down to, really, is a lack of faith (of those in authority) in the ability of Rossini's music to be spirited, entertaining, or fanciful on its own.

The best of the singing came from Norman Paige as the Prince. His voice is light but artfully produced to float every syllable clearly, with the result that almost every word he sang could be understood. Sylvia Friederich, an appealing mezzo with little professional experience, executed much of the florid writing for which Cinderella's part is famous, with clarity and finesse, but also with very limited volume and at a pace thoughtfully adjusted to her limitations by conductor Samuel Krachmalnick. Julian Patrick, as Dandini (servant to the prince), offered a resonant baritone and a promising way of using it, and Arnold Voketaitis's experience at City Center, Central City, and elsewhere was abundantly evident in his practiced, broadly comic Don Magnifico. Miss Peil was Clorinda and Ellen Berse her maidenly sister Thisbe. Even allowing for divergent tastes in humor, it was hard to reconcile the lack of verve and sparkle in the orchestra's performance of Rossini with its idiomatic manner in Puccini. The conductor in both instances was Krachmalnick, which may mean that it is easier to recast opera singers than it is to find equally versatile conductors.

Along with its organizational growing pains, the National Company suffered the misfortune of being the first operatic ensemble to appear in the State Theater (hitherto used for ballet, for which it was built, and musical comedy, for which it can be adapted by use of amplification). To say the results were confusing is to praise them. In most portions of the theater the orchestra was overprojected and the voices were ill-favored when elsewhere than at the very front of the stage. Inspection showed a complete lack of reflecting surfaces around the settings, a fact that could account for a lot of tonal leakage. In any case, the New York City Opera, which becomes a permanent tenant next year, has a serious problem to solve before it can call this house a home.

One problem it is not likely to have when it moves is the sound of Ned Rorem's setting of Strindberg's *Miss Julie.* This last of the City Center Opera Company's novelties at its present house on Fifty-fifth Street was introduced during the same week, and came off mostly as a mismatch. Strindberg's macabre

(*Continued on page* 67)

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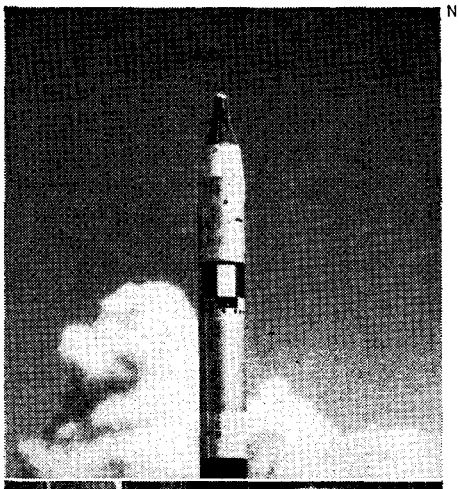

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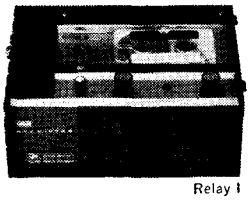

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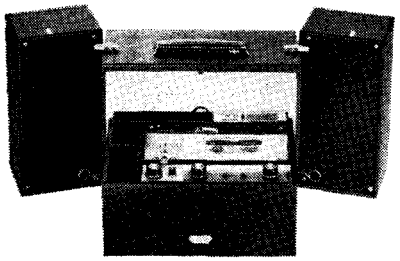

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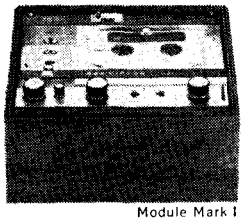

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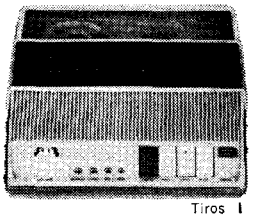

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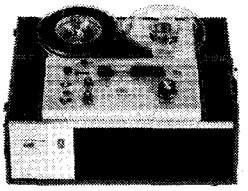

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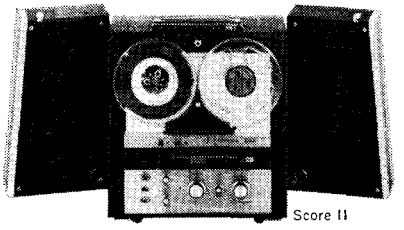

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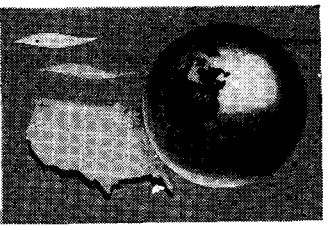

ROME:

Alternative to Automation?

AN AMERICAN MANUFACTURER of television sets tried using first a man and then a machine in the process of mounting diode valves. Neither was completely reliable in rejecting defective items. A university professor of psychology offered to solve the problem with pigeons. After a short time he succeeded in training pigeons to sort out the valves at the rate of 1,000 per hour, with a lower percentage of error than either a man or a machine, and without showing any signs of fatigue after four hours of such work. But the manufacturer panicked when he thought of the reaction of the labor unions and the SPCA, and gave up the idea of pigeon labor.

—*Il Mondo.*

MONTREAL:

Symptom or Cause?

THE COMMITTEE on Un-American Activities—a body whose existence has often been criticized as incompatible with civil liberties—has recently turned its investigatory spotlight away from Communists and toward the Ku Klux Klan.

It has quickly discovered that Communists and KKK members have at least one thing in common: they will not testify. The questions directed at a number of KKK members have brought in response only a monotonous invocation of the constitutional right not to testify.

That the Ku Klux Klan is a dangerous organization cannot be doubted. But it is not dangerous in the way that most of its critics seem to believe. And it is not likely that its dissolution will be helped by the investigation launched by the House Un-American Activities Committee.

The Ku Klux Klan is only the worst and most sordid aspect of the anti-Negro prejudice in the Southern United States. It is an indigenous American form of fascism which is fed by the hatred in the South. It, or similar organizations, will continue to exist as long as the Southern prejudices remain. And it is these prejudices that are the real barrier to Negro advancement and the real danger to human rights.

The Ku Klux Klan is a symptom of a disease, not the cause of the disease. The investigation by the House Un-American Activities Committee may do some good, but this is not likely. It will take far deeper change than an investigation can bring about to end the white supremacist organizations which live on anti-Negro hatred. —*The Gazette.*

MOSCOW:

Wrong Battlefront?

THE GANGS OF KLANSMEN and other right-wing elements continue to gather strength in the U.S., even though Washington is trying to present the current investigation as an official offensive against the racial gangs. . . .

A legitimate question arises: Is the so-called Un-American Activities Committee a suitable body for fighting the racists? Long ago it won the shameful reputation of a strangler of progressive forces. Serving U.S. reaction, it persecutes and hounds the same progressive elements of U.S. society who are the target of attacks by the fascist-minded John Birch Society and the Ku Klux Klan. As to the fuss made about the work of that committee, its aim is clear: to impress upon American and world public opinion, especially in the countries of Asia, Africa, and Latin America, the idea that the ruling circles of Washington have already raised the sword against the racists. In fact, the gangs of Klansmen and other right-wing elements are growing stronger, enjoying complete immunity and sometimes even the protection of U.S. authorities.

—*Radio Moscow.*

OTTAWA:

The Abuses of Protest

THE PROTEST MOVEMENT in the United States against the Vietnam war has suddenly taken a significant step beyond peace marches and teach-ins.

The anti-war faction has grown bolder. There have been draft-card burnings —for which one young man has been arrested—and open advocacy of the defiance of Selective Service regulations on the grounds of moral objection to the war.

The belligerent pacifists are following an old, even honorable, American tradition. Henry David Thoreau preached and practiced civil disobedience more than 100 years ago in Concord, Massachusetts. He went to jail rather than pay income tax and he is remembered today as one of the patron saints of individualism.

Society always has its Thoreaus, and perhaps needs them to protect itself from the tyranny of the majority. Indeed, free societies respect individual conscience so much that conscientious objection to war is usually grounds for exemption from combat service. No one can belittle the sincerity of the Society of Friends—the Quakers.

But the principle of respect for individual conscience comes up against another principle: the right of a state to raise an army in time of peril.

The strong reaction to the anti-draft movement which is now setting in tends to regard the protesters as insincere draft-dodgers.

Undoubtedly some conversions to pacifism coincided with the reception of a draft call. But others are undoubtedly sincere. They have said they would

Onward and Upward with the Americans

A letter to the editor published recently in the London Times

AT ALMOST EVERY SESSION of the recent Labor and Tory Conventions the speakers received "a standing ovation." This is a takeover from America, seen in its wildest form at Republican and Democratic Party Conventions. I first experienced it in 1940 in Chicago, then an anti-British hornet's nest, when addressing some 800 business executives. Having made a vigorous attack on isolationism, I was pleasantly surprised to find that the audience had not risen to throw something at me.

These standing ovations are founded on emotion rather than logic and are apt to become the asset of demogoguery. Just how much are such ovations worth? It only needs half a dozen persons to rise from their seats, applauding, for everyone else to follow suite, since no one, remaining seated, wishes to be written off as a sourpuss.

And now that the standing ovation has become a commonplace, where do we go from here? Must we now get up from our chairs in order to stand on them in order to give the speaker a higher standing ovation?

—CECIL ROBERTS.

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accept "humanitarian" work instead of military service.

Yet, granting goodwill, what would happen to the concept of government if everyone acted individually, putting private judgment of what constitutes a country's interest ahead of the collective wisdom and authority of elected rulers?

What would become of democracy and freedom in a world often hostile if the majority of those eligible for military service decided the draft was immoral . . . ?

The very essence of life in community is a sharing of responsibility—collective support for a common standard of values and conduct. Unrestrained individualism wars with an orderly society. Dissent ought not to be confused with intelligence.

There is a selfishness, even arrogance, about some of the protest movements; and those are the last qualities any society should encourage today.

—*The Ottawa Journal.*

WARSAW:

A Nation's Conscience?

THE FURTHER DEVELOPMENT of the military situation in Vietnam has shown that the continuous reinforcement of the interventionists there does not produce any chances of defeating the guerrillas. The United States has exhausted her military possibilities (not in the quantitative but in the strategic sense), and there is no end of the war in sight.

This fact has moved opponents of the U.S. involvement in Vietnam to vigorous new actions. The dimensions of their demonstrations should not be overestimated, but it is significant that there are people who do not fear the risk connected with the demonstration of their anti-war attitude. Their action, it is true, is so far not massive enough to influence the decisions of the government and bring about a change in its policy, but it is they who constitute the conscience of the great indifferent nation.

—*Glos Pracy.*

TORONTO:

Holding the Line

IT'S AN OLD argument but it just won't die: All that is needed to solve the difficulties in Vietnam is for the U.S. to pull out. . . . Sincere and vocal Americans are using the argument on the assumption that a U.S. withdrawal would induce Hanoi and Peking to act like gentlemen and respect the democratic wishes of the South Vietnamese.

Fortunately, the American government is far more realistic than its domestic critics. . . . The one fact that seems to escape the advocates of retreat is that the Communists are aggressors. Not long ago Secretary of State Rusk pointed out that in the last five years 40,000 trained guerrillas have infiltrated into South Vietnam from the north.

Had they come in a single drive, as in Korea, few would have doubted their purpose of conquest. But since they operate under cover, they appear to many as a citizen army fighting for liberation.

But a citizen army does not kill and terrorize indiscriminately. It does not cut off the heads of old men, women, and children simply to create terror.

How can the U.S., in the face of these facts, wash its hands of the Vietnam affair? Only the incorrigibly naïve call for such a move. . . . Concessions are not the answer in this case. Realistic

appraisal of Communist aims, holding the line against aggression, keeping the door open to negotiation and peace—this is the only hopeful program for Vietnam and the whole of Southeast Asia.

—*The Telegram.*

MILAN:

Silent Revolution

IN THE MOST advanced industrial society of our times, the United States, women are bringing about a silent revolution. . . . In recent years the greatest increase in the numbers of employed person has been among women between forty-five and fifty-five years of age. . . . More than 100 colleges have set up special courses for married women. . . .

Women's decision to take their place in the world of labor apparently is beneficial to conjugal happiness. Often, when the children are grown up, husband and wife discover that they have nothing in common, and separation or divorce looms up on the horizon. The wife's job seems to serve, from a psychological point of view, to create a new basis for marital harmony.

—*Cesare Mannucci in Corriere della Sera.*

Music to My Ears

Continued from page 64

probe of a sex-obsessed young noblewoman (the term relates to social station, not to character) has, in the libretto arranged by Kenward Elmslie, possibilities for musical treatment: the dramatic confrontation of Julie's impulses with the ambitions of the groom with whom she has a midsummer night's frolic, and the presence of a subsidiary character (a housemaid) to whom the groom is engaged, have the kind of circular relationship that can be squared by strong tonal treatment. But strong is just what Rorem's treatment is not.

Tempermentally, what the subject requires is something on the order of Berg. What Rorem provides is, for the most part, on the order of Debussy. That is to say, he is more adept with longing and fantasy than he is with fulfilment and bitterness. As an instance, there is the long episode in the second act when Miss Julie's seduction (if that is the word for her act of consent) has been accomplished and the partners to it are not quite sure where they are to go next. She is hoping for love and marriage; he is more interested in getting at her money and setting up in the hotel business in Switzerland. But Rorem seems intent on getting over with it and onto the next "set piece" in which he can utilize his considerable gifts as a song writer. Thus it is more like a play with incidental music and an occasional burst of song than a music drama with an organic structure and a sure line of procedure. Donald Gramm provided the stature, both vocal and dramatic, for a successful groom, but Marguerite Willauer's attractive appearance had to perform more than a reasonable share of characterization. Her smallish voice grew smaller as the evening progressed (a cold was cited as part of the reason). Elaine Bonazzi made a credible dramatic study of the housemaid and sang well when required. The conductor was Robert Zeller, who achieved a real feat of musical adaptability in making the score performable with a scant rehearsal schedule.

Zubin Mehta's first New York appearance in five years with a major orchestra found him as conductor of the Philadelphia Orchestra in a Philharmonic Hall program of Beethoven (*Coriolan* overture), Schoenberg (*Five Orchestral Pieces*), and Bruckner (Symphony No. 9). Each had a shape and substance Mehta's own, which is much to say of a young conductor confronted with an orchestra of so positive a personality as this one. He achieved truly outstanding results in the Schoenberg *Pieces*, each one artfully distinguished from the other.

—IRVING KOLODIN.

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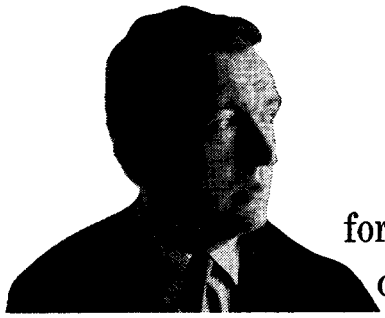

A marvelous thing happened— for American school children— on the way to the Forum!

During the spring of 1963 Dr. Paul Roberts, the distinguished linguist, had a visitor in Rome. His friend and publisher, William Jovanovich, had flown from New York to put a question to him:

"If what we have learned about English syntax and phonology and morphology during the past two decades is true and useful, why can't we put it into teachable form for elementary schools?"

Paul Roberts' response has made, we believe, educational and publishing history. But first, let us give you the background to the question itself.

For the most part the teaching of English grammar and syntax has been based on some inaccurate assumptions about how our language actually works. Until 1956, when Mr. Jovanovich published Dr. Roberts' PATTERNS OF ENGLISH, there were no textbooks that made use of the scholarship in linguistics by Fries, Whitehall, Trager, Smith, Hill, and others. Even with the publication of Roberts' ENGLISH SENTENCES (1962) and ENGLISH SYNTAX (1964), the essential problem of describing for beginning students the English language *as it is* had not been faced. Dr. Roberts' earlier books were all designed for students in the upper grades; and these students had to reject much of their learning in order to comprehend the principles of how English sentences actually are formed. No one had yet presented the "new English" to American school children.

The question put in Rome, where Dr. Roberts worked, was a momentous one. The response has made a great publishing story:

- In June of 1964 Dr. Roberts began writing Grade 3 of THE ROBERTS ENGLISH SERIES.
- In January of 1966 the materials will be published consisting of textbooks for grades 3, 4, 5, and 6, and for each grade, teachers' editions, workbooks, and long-play classroom records.
- In September of 1966 the textbooks and other materials for grades 7, 8, and 9 will be available. Soon afterwards, a program for grades 10, 11, and 12 will be underway.

THE ROBERTS ENGLISH SERIES is, in our opinion, the most original contribution to the elementary-school teaching of English in modern times. Unlike the "new math," the "new physics," the "new biology," it is not a bringing-down to school level of what has been understood and taught at college levels. Indeed, we shall observe soon the spectacle of third-grade children studying English based on linguistics scholarship in a way that is still largely unknown to college freshmen.

If you would like to hear more about THE ROBERTS ENGLISH SERIES, *we invite you to write Charles Ross, Chief Elementary Editor, School Department, Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 757 Third Avenue, New York 10017.*

HARCOURT, BRACE & WORLD, INC.

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EDUCATION IN AMERICA

Education Editor: PAUL WOODRING
Associate Education Editor: JAMES CASS

EDITORIAL 69

LETTERS TO THE EDITOR 71

INVENTING AN EDUCATION FOR ENGINEERS
By T. Keith Glennan 72

EDUCATING TEACHERS: THE NEED FOR RADICAL REFORM
By Harold Taylor 75

PERSONAL OPINION:
CHAOS IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES?
By Donald W. Robinson 79

FINANCING HIGHER EDUCATION
By Humphrey Doermann 80

HIGHER EDUCATION ACT OF 1965 83

INTEGRATING A WHITE GHETTO
By Joan V. Davis 84

THE EDITOR'S BOOKSHELF 86

BOOK REVIEW
"Coming of Age in America: Growth and Acquiescence," by Edgar Z. Friedenberg, reviewed by Miriam L. Goldberg 87

NEW BOOKS 89

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College Admissions: A Cure for Chaos?

"AMERICAN HIGHER EDUCATION has many virtues," James Bryant Conant told a national conference of The Association of College Admissions Counselors last month, "but it is not characterized by candor." Terming the admissions situation today "chaotic" at both the undergraduate and graduate school levels, he claimed that this chaos is the consequence "of a widespread conspiracy of silence about higher education in the U.S."

Specifically, Dr. Conant asserted that any boy who wants to become "a leading physician" should enroll in one of not more than a dozen medical schools (there are more than seventy in the country). And to be admitted to one of these top medical schools, the applicant must have a strong undergraduate record in "a college which is known to have high standards." A similar situation exists, he notes, for the field of law and for graduate study in the arts and sciences. Yet no one is willing to break the "conspiracy of silence" that shrouds the identity of the institutions—both undergraduate and graduate—that offer direct access to the upper echelons of professional acceptance. "It is a basic American article of educational faith," he says, "that all degrees are of equal worth. In short, the existence of a hierarchy of institutions is concealed from the public view. . . ."

Dr. Conant is primarily concerned with the 50,000 brightest boys who enter college each fall (the top 5 per cent), and even more particularly with those in this group who aspire to the professions. (He explains his exclusive concern with boys by citing the fact that 95 per cent of all the professional degrees in law and medicine, as well as the Ph.D., have been earned by men.) "The nation needs to have the most able and broadly educated lawyers, doctors, scholars, and research scientists that an educational system can produce," he says. "We require, of course, many other types of individuals with many other types of talent developed to the full. But the brilliance and capacity of the some 50,000 graduates of our professional schools in 1978 and subsequent years will have a determining role in the welfare of the nation for the balance of the century. Of that I am absolutely certain."

To make sure that the nation's most capable future scholars are channelled into the "best" colleges and graduate schools. Dr. Conant proposes a radically new structure for higher education. Specifically, he suggests the following:

> Let the twenty-five or so graduate schools which now award the majority of Ph.D.s, the twenty or thirty leading law schools and medical schools form a league. Let those undergraduate faculties or colleges which are interested in having a student body with the intellectual caliber required for graduate study in law, in medicine, and in the arts and sciences form an association. I will call this group the association of pre-professional honor colleges. Let the graduate school league and the collegiate association agree that any graduate of the association of pre-professional honor colleges will be admitted by some member institution of the league, subject only to limitations of laboratory space in the case of medical schools. Let it be agreed that the standards of marking among the pre-professional honor colleges will be kept essentially uniform. Let it be

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announced by a joint statement of the league and the association that any high school graduate who stands among the top 15 per cent in his high school class and who makes a certain score on the SAT will be admitted by some member of the collegiate association. . . . The basic idea is that every boy who meets a given criterion has a chance of starting professional work in a post-graduate school of the league.

Admission to the pre-professional honor colleges would be simplified through use of standard report and application forms submitted to a common clearing house serving all the fifty to seventy-five institutions involved. An element of future flexibility is also introduced into this seemingly rigid structure by provision for the addition of members to both the graduate league and the pre-professional college association as the demand increases and institutions qualify. Dr. Conant also notes that members of the graduate league would admit substantial numbers of students from undergraduate institutions that were not members of the collegiate association, and that these undergraduate colleges would not necessarily enroll all their students in the honor college or program.

As with so many of Dr. Conant's recommendations for educational reform, his suggestions for revolutionizing college admissions throw into sharp relief both the strengths and the weakness of current practice. It is true that the college admissions picture is complex and confused. It is also true that higher education institutions—with a few notable exceptions—have not been willing to reveal the kind of information about themselves that is necessary for realistic selection by prospective students, their parents, and their guidance counselors. And, finally, it is certainly true that there is a hierarchy of academic excellence within American higher education which has long been well hidden from the public generally, but is widely recognized by those "in the know."

There is serious question, however, about whether Dr. Conant's recommendation for an association of pre-professional honor colleges and a league of graduate and professional schools is an effective answer to an admittedly serious problem—even for the very select group of college entrants for whom it is designed.

The hierarchy of academic quality in American education is not one of well-defined groups of "good" and "bad" institutions. Rather, it is a continuum of colleges encompassing the whole range of some 1,200 four-year and 700 two-year institutions, plus a handful of independent graduate and professional schools. These colleges and universities serve a variety of educational purposes for the whole spectrum of Americans

who seek opportunities for study "beyond the high school."

To set apart an elite group of undergraduate and graduate colleges to serve the most academically talented 5 per cent of the nation's male students might ease the admissions problem for these few institutions through a cooperative admissions clearinghouse serving them all. It certainly would ease part of the admissions problem for the members of the league of graduate schools, and might well reduce some of the competitive pressure on undergraduates since they would be assured of acceptance at one of the leading graduate institutions. But the plan would have other effects as well.

Many institutions would be called, but few would be chosen to join the elite undergraduate association of honor colleges. To make explicit the division between those that were judged qualified for membership and those that were not would be to draw a necessarily arbitrary line at some point on the whole continuum of higher education institutions. In a period when many colleges are changing rapidly, it would tend to freeze the status quo. And despite any careful explanation of the purposes of such an association, inevitably the public, and much of the education profession, would see those colleges that achieved membership as "good" and all others as inferior. Such a view would increase the already intense pressures on colleges across the nation to conform to the Ivy League-Swarthmore, prestige college image. Moreover, it would increase the already overwhelming pressure on high school students to gain admission to one of the "right" colleges. The bright, but not top, students and the excellent, but not quite select, colleges are the ones that would suffer. The pressures that are already overwhelming on both might well become unbearable.

Dr. Conant's revolutionary proposal might be more enticing if there were no alternative on the horizon. But there are strong indications that, at least at the undergraduate level, the "conspiracy of silence" about individual institutions is disappearing. Ever since the College Entrance Examination Board published its first volume of Freshman Class Profiles in the spring of 1961, the veil of secrecy has been lifting. These profiles, when the college gives complete information, offer college board scores, class rank, and other data that provide a clear and revealing look at the academic capability of the institution's freshman class, and make it possible for the perceptive counselor to determine with considerable accuracy where each institution fits into the higher education hierarchy. (Current research indicates clearly that the best measure of the academic quality of a college is the capability of its student body.) We may hope that the number of schools making public this kind of information will continue to increase, as it has in the past. (About 120 colleges cooperated in the 1961 edition of profiles; more than 400 did so in 1965.) And we may hope, too, that the colleges will soon be willing to provide comparable data on other equally important aspects of the higher education experience as well.

If the present trend continues, a very high percentage of the colleges that send substantial numbers of their graduates on to graduate and professional study will be providing comparative data about themselves. When this occurs, the information available to students, parents, and counselors should render unnecessary a formal association of pre-professional honor colleges—especially if the scope of high school guidance counseling is enlarged and its quality improved.

Unfortunately, graduate and professional institutions have traditionally maintained an even more effective "conspiracy of silence" about themselves than have undergraduate colleges. And there are no indications to date that they feel the necessity for change. But if a few leading, forward-looking institutions were to agree on an informal basis to make information on their admissions policies more widely available to undergraduate colleges, almost inevitably others would follow.

We are indebted to Dr. Conant for posing the issues of college admissions so clearly and forcefully. Let us hope that institutions of higher learning will take his words to heart and progressively display more willingness to provide revealing information about themselves. For if they do, it should be possible to achieve his objective of channeling the most capable students to our top-flight academic colleges, without doing a disservice to other students and institutions.

—J.C.

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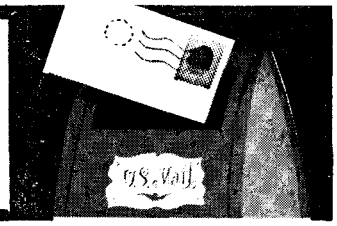
Letters to the Editor



Skinner Raises Hackles

In response to Dr. Skinner's article, "Why Teachers Fail" [*SR*, Oct. 16], may I say that I am in thorough agreement with his thesis that little attention has been paid to the concept of positive reinforcement in educational circles. All too often teaching and its context follow from what is convenient and economical to the school instead of what is suggested by scientific studies of learning behavior.

Stephen J. Noren,
Professor of Philosophy,
Goddard College.

Plainfield, Vt.

B. F. Skinner's article, and his conviction that a true science of pedagogy is not only needed but is actually in the offing, won my enthusiastic assent. I have a couple of reservations, however. . . .

First, I think that programed learning may indeed turn out to be the most helpful educational innovation of the century [but] at the same time I feel that teaching as an art will always be necessary. For, at present, there are some children in our society who, for a variety of reasons, some of which may be deep rooted, do not respond to programed learning (or indeed any other kind of learning) without a great deal of individual and highly personal guidance.

My other reservation about programed learning is the more common one; namely, that great teachers have something to offer of inspiration and enthusiasm that a program can never supply. But great teachers are, and always will be, scarce.

Edith Waterhouse.

Pacific Palisades, Calif.

From a vantage point at the scene of the crime I find such articles as Professor Skinner's "Why Teachers Fail" irresistible. Like sermons in church, such questions as "Why do teachers fail?" or "Why can't Johnny read—or talk French or do integral calculus?" always seem to imply someone else's failures and sins. This time, however, we are supplied with a Test Your Teaching guide guaranteed to shake everyone out of complacency. It includes such startling questions as, "Do my students stop work immediately when I dismiss the class?" (They had jolly well better, having three flights of stairs to travel in four minutes to their next class) and "Do they welcome rather than regret vacations?" (Does Professor Skinner regret vacations? Do you?)

Experienced teachers have learned that what goes on in their classrooms is going to be a series of compromises between the ideals of the educational theorists and what the traffic will allow. . . .The current theory that learning must be an enjoyable and painless process has resulted not only in failures but also in downright tragedies. . . .

It hardly seems fair to allow a child to live for twelve or sixteen years in an artificial environment where everyone is vitally concerned about his happiness, only to plunge him into society at the end of that period and let him discover somewhat belatedly that in order to exist he is certainly going to spend a large part of each day doing things he does not want to do, and that, furthermore, no one is going to care if he is happy or not. Oddly enough, the child who learned early that happiness was a fringe benefit of a job well done and therefore dependent on his own efforts may find that the "aversive control" does not seem so bad in retrospect. I think some of them might even thank us for it.

Davidine L. Buffum.

Manchester, N.H.

If Professor Skinner would guarantee that each student who entered my classroom next September would be a *tabula rasa*, or, at least, inscribed thereon by the hands of angels with whom I agree, I guarantee that I would use no aversive methods. . . .

Unfortunately, people like Professor Skinner keep saying and writing that there should be "methods" of teaching unlike—oh, yes, so unlike—those now in use that students would gallop to class as though to the movies with free ice cream (free booze for high school students), but *not one* has presented a new method. Show them to me! Give them to me! I'll use them every day all day. Does anyone think a teacher likes to use threats . . . ?

Honestly, every time I read an article like this one, I go up in a puff of smoke. No suggestions; just criticism. No taking into account intellectual activity, only the physical.

Pearl Aldrich,
English Department,
Bolsa Grande High School.

Garden Grove, Calif.

Cheers for B. F. Skinner and "Why Teachers Fail.". . .

For five years I have tried to place an article condemning corporal punishment without success. Even speaking about it merely divided my audience into those who would not believe that it happens and those who defend it as necessary. And now the behaviorist camp, which I had despaired of because of its irrelevance to the real world, comes back on stage with a real hit.

Adah Maurer.

Berkeley, Calif.

Dr. Skinner has given us nothing that will help produce better teachers or keep those teachers who show good potential in the classroom. If grants are going to be given to prominent scientists, educators, and psychologists to discover what makes a "teacher," then I suggest they do more than reiterate common knowledge about our profession.

Perhaps Dr. Skinner, who was quite successful in teaching pigeons to differentiate among colors, should stay with that type of experimentation and leave the teaching profession to those who are trained in that field.

John H. Baillie,
Principal,
Alma Public Schools.

Alma, Neb.

It would seem, with the help of the behavioral scientist, that once we have so clearly and clinically identified the student as an anomalous fact whose emotional responses can be defined, classified, charted, and predicted then we will be able simply to tap the desired stimulus-response circuit in his system and give him everything we know to be best for him—everything, that is, except what he needs most: to feel he is a human being able to choose, instead of a growth form able merely to respond.

William Lambdin.

Yuma, Ariz.

Correction

The correct address of *Volunteer's Digest* is 5507 33rd Street, N.W., Washington, D. C. 20015 (not Third Street, as listed in "Schools Make News" of Oct. 16).

Ruth Wolozin,
Editor,
Volunteer's Digest.

Washington, D. C.

Students' Dilemma

Robert Wagner, Jr.'s article, "The Dimension of Commitment" [*SR*, Oct. 16], has stated precisely the present dilemma of the American college student. The crux of the problem is that there is no grander scheme for youth, which demands goals. American leaders, instead of negatively attacking student protests, should put forth positive suggestions for student action. If leaders despise current student demonstrations, why do they not make proposals and set up more programs (*e.g.*, Peace Corps) to channel student unrest into worthwhile alternatives?

David W. Breeden.

Orono, Me.

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INVENTING AN EDUCATION FOR ENGINEERS

During his eighteen-year presidency of Case Institute of Technology in Cleveland, the author of this article played a significant part in the changes in the education of engineers that have occurred during those years. Here he comments on those changes that promise to produce a new breed of engineers, broader in outlook and more professional in point of view.

By T. KEITH GLENNAN

UNTIL RECENTLY, engineering education consisted mainly of teaching traditional mathematical skills and a selected set of practices current in industry—practices that had changed only in an evolutionary way during the past decade and could be expected to remain basically unchanged during the next. Engineers were presumed to be hard-headed pragmatists with little need for such subjects as history, economics, psychology, sociology, and other liberal studies and little interest in the effect of their work on society.

Laboratory courses were largely limited to the repetition of experiments whose results were already known—and available in fraternity files!—and to the testing of equipment for performance. Designs of machines and processes had evolved slowly and much time was spent in learning to repeat these designs with only small variations to suit special conditions. The principles behind the design were usually little understood by the engineers, and there was little communication between the scientists and the engineers.

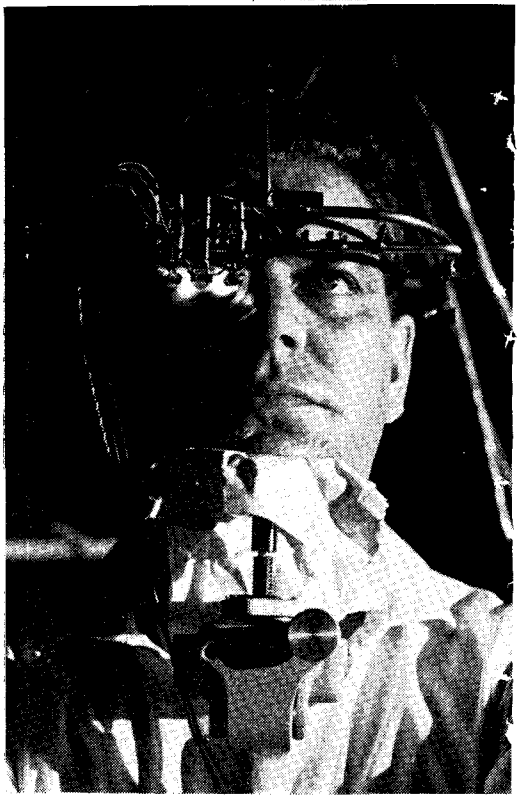
World War II marked the beginning of the end of this neat, slow-paced, highly compartmentalized approach to engineering and engineering education. For survival, our nation and our allies needed weapons built on radically new principles, assembled in numbers without precedent, on a timetable that seemed not only impossible but downright ridiculous. We needed defenses that were more reminiscent of Buck Rogers than of Edison or Steinmetz. We needed, not improvements, but breakthroughs in materials, design, production methods, controls, and communications and management techniques, and we needed them yesterday.

We quickly found that inventors were not enough; we needed scientists. As research schedules accelerated we found that individual scientists were not enough; we needed teams of scientists pooling knowledge and resources from a variety of disciplines. When the results of their research began to appear we were dismayed to discover that most of our engineers could not cope with the new knowledge, partly because the majority of them had been given only a superficial grasp of the physical sciences, and partly because they had not been taught the advanced mathematics needed to translate the new discoveries into usable designs.

THE wartime solution to this problem was to remove many badly needed scientists from research teams and put them to work with engineers building the hardware for some of our far-out new weapons and defense systems. As an emergency solution the strategem worked, and the accomplishments of Western science and technology probably won the war. But it was clear that the use of scientists as engineers was not a permanent solution. Something drastic had to be done to update engineering education and bring it into line with the emerging needs of a scientific age.

To clarify the problem of Case, we initiated a series of studies in depth that covered every aspect of our educational philosophy and program. Out of these studies came some convictions about what should be done, and one by one the elements of a program began to emerge.

Briefly, I will trace the thinking behind each major change we have made and describe the change. I will limit my discussion largely to my own institution, but it is my belief that the trend lines at Case are not too different from those of other leading institutions in our fields of interest.



Bio-medical engineering: "Research centers are oriented toward broad problem areas that cut across departmental barriers."

Our takeoff point was a new and broader understanding of the term "engineering," which we stated as follows:

> Engineering is a profession primarily concerned with *design* in the broadest sense of the word. Design begins with the recognition of a need and the conception of an idea or ideas to satisfy this need. It proceeds with the definition of the problem, continues through a program of directed research and development, and concludes by building and bringing into operation something which did not previously exist. The end product may be an improvement on an old machine, process, or system, or it may be the translation of new knowledge into new solutions of old or new problems. The object of design can be very simple—a tool, a chair, a pipe fitting; or it can be very complex—a missile system, an automatically controlled nuclear power plant, an information processing system, or a city.

Our first move to translate these concepts into a practical educational program was motivated by the conviction that in the world of the future the work of the engineer would have a powerful impact on society. This conviction led to a change in the curriculum that gives each Case student a substantial exposure to the humanities and social sciences throughout his undergraduate years.

Our next moves were dictated by the fact that problem-solving in industry, and teaching in the classroom and lab-

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oratory were being severely hindered by traditional "disciplinary" boundaries. Increasingly, the solution of a problem in, say, electrical engineering required knowledge and methods from several engineering or scientific disciplines. Classroom teaching was still rigidly compartmentalized, but the needs and interests of professors and students engaged in creative work were found to be constantly moving in new directions, having little or no relationship to their departmental domains.

We found a partial solution in the development of research centers oriented, not toward departments, but toward broad problem areas that cut across departmental barriers.

For example, the design of a computer-controlled chemical plant might require a chemical engineer's knowledge of chemical processing; a computer engineer's knowledge of how to harness the computer to the task; a chemist's knowledge of the reactions taking place in the system; and a systems engineer's knowledge of complex systems with many variables.

The presence of the centers encourages people in different fields to cooperate in finding solutions to common problems, and provides an environment in which they can work together with maximum effectiveness.

The first center to be established was the Andrew R. Jennings Computing Center, followed at close intervals by the Engineering Design Center, the Systems Research Center, and the Center for the Study of Materials. Each center has a small, permanent staff, flexible space for experimental work, and a nucleus of costly, high-quality research equipment that can be expanded to fill developing needs.

The next major move was the reorganization of the engineering departments, a logical outgrowth of the same forces that had led to the development of the centers. Looking backward for a moment into the history of engineering education in this country, each new branch of engineering was the outgrowth of an urgent industrial need, and each new engineering department was the formal educational structure set up to prepare men professionally to satisfy that need.

When our country was new the most urgent need was for highways, bridges, railroads, and large structures, and Civil Engineering was the answer. Second came Mechanical Engineering, developed to cope with the problems growing out of steam power and the first industrial revolution. Later, other branches of engineering were formed, such as Electrical and Chemical. All were practical answers to the growing needs of industry.

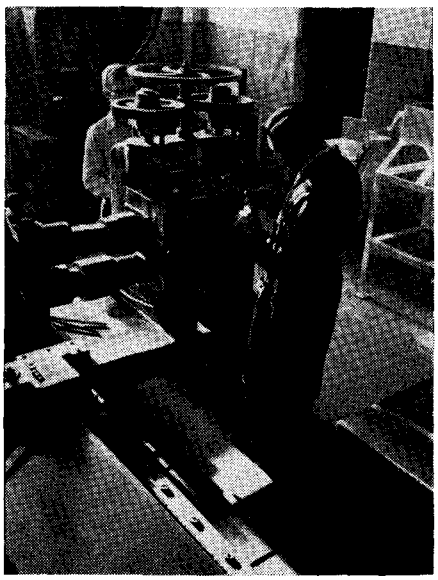
At Case, at the end of World War II, we found ourselves with four major engineering departments, Civil, Mechanical, Chemical, and Electrical, each offering a number of traditional options. They were well organized and held in high esteem, but they were rigidly compartmentalized, and there was little exchange of ideas and methods across departmental barriers. This isolation was obstructing the evolution of curricula and programs needed to cope with the growing flood of new knowledge and the growing pressure of new problems, most of which were interdisciplinary in nature.

To match the pace, engineering education required a new flexibility. Various approaches to this problem have been made by engineering schools across the country and experimentation is continuing. Case's solution was that of combining the engineering departments into a single Engineering Division.

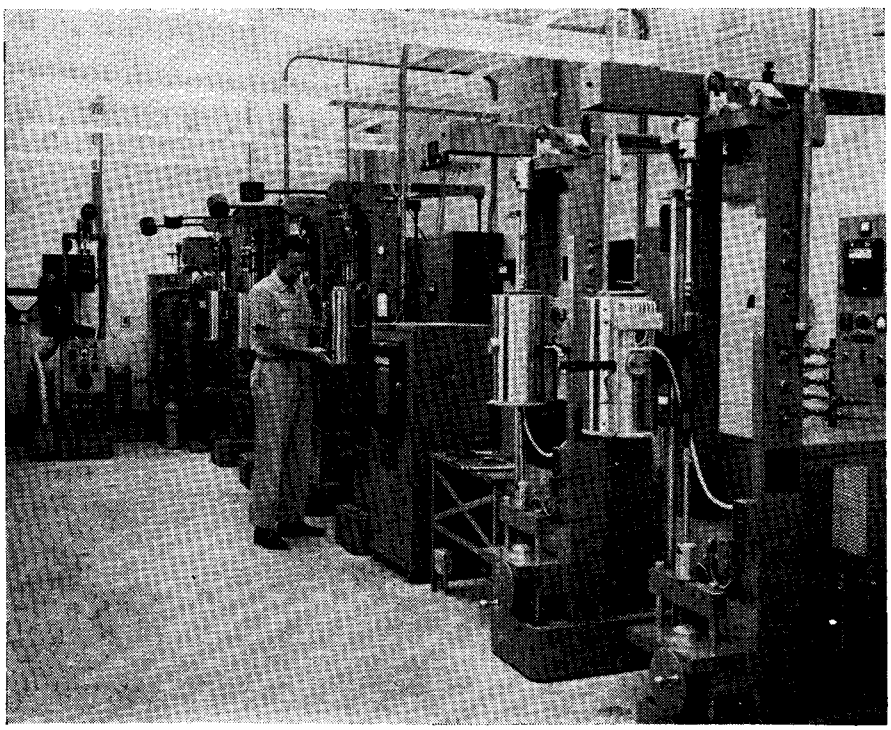
The divisional organization provides an environment in which faculty and students can study and research more effectively important new problem areas as they arise. It encourages natural groupings among faculty having similar teaching and research interests and promotes better communication. It provides far greater flexibility in the educational programs, permitting rapid adoption by students of elective programs in such emerging areas as systems engineering, computer engineering, materials science, plasma dynamics, and biomedical engineering. Finally, the organization improves the efficiency with which these desired changes can be made, and promotes the optimum use of teaching talent, laboratory space, and equipment.

But the development of the centers and the reorganization of the engineering departments were only partial solutions to the problem. Central to a long-term solution was the development of a curriculum that would provide a solid groundwork for professional competence in an era of unpredictable change.

Traditionally, the curriculum at Case had been organized around the "Case Core," a series of required courses in mathematics, physics, chemistry, and, more recently, the humanities and social studies. Then, in 1962, the faculty adopted a new program under which engineering students still must take



—*Ed Nano.*



The transition in engineering education has required moving the curriculum from elementary machine shop practices (left) to complex electronic equipment (right) for the investigation of the fundamental properties of metals.

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the core courses, but in addition must also take a new Engineering Core—a sequence of ten courses in advanced mathematics, the engineering sciences, computer programing, and laboratory work dealing with problems typical of modern technology. The purpose of these required subjects is to provide a broader knowledge base in the physical and engineering sciences from which further learning may develop.

The remainder of the undergraduate program in engineering consists of eleven approved elective sequences. Course sequence may be selected with one of two goals in mind: preparation for employment in industry or government, or preparation for advanced study in graduate school. The sequences may lead to a traditional orientation such as electrical or mechanical engineering, or to one of a variety of new orientations such as computer science or aerospace mechanics. In every case, however, the four-year graduate emerges with a general knowledge of a broad spectrum of scientific and engineering disciplines; a competence in mathematics rivaling that of holders of advanced degrees in previous decades; and a competence in depth in the field of his choice.

Such a man is so far different from his predecessor of twenty years ago it is no exaggeration to say that he is a new breed. He has little reverence for traditional methods and procedures; he wants to know the theory behind the machine or the process or the system; and he has a disturbing reluctance to take anything for granted.

He is a man who is at home with both theory and application. As an undergraduate, he was involved with faculty and graduate students in professional research problems, so he knows how to get his hands dirty in a laboratory or a pilot plant. If new problems arise he knows how to turn to analysis and research for the answer, and he can use a second-generation digital computer as matter-of-factly as his counterpart a generation ago used the slide rule and the adding machine. His educational experience has demonstrated to him the impact of new knowledge, so he is strongly motivated to continue learning throughout his career.

Similar changes are taking place in other institutions of higher learning in the fields of science and engineering, but there is a considerable variation in their approach to the problem. For example, the School of Engineering at Johns Hopkins University is dedicated to the proposition that, in order to keep abreast of the scientific revolution, engineering must become a graduate discipline, like medicine and law. The undergraduate program leading to the Bachelor of Engineering Science degree is frankly aimed at preparation for graduate study.

The curriculum permits a student to major in chemical engineering, electrical engineering, mechanics, metallurgy, or operations research; or to concentrate on such broad subject areas as thermodynamics, electricity, and magnetism, and emerge with a degree in Engineering Science without a specific designation.

At Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute the student can take a four-year program oriented toward engineering, but without professional engineering status; or he can take a five-year program and earn the professional degree of Master of Engineering in one of several disciplines. In either case, he is required to take a pre-engineering sequence of courses that emphasizes the basic sciences, mathematics, engineering science, and humanities and social sciences.

The feeling at Rensselaer is that there are many jobs in industry and government that would be better served by men whose education has had a strong engineering orientation, but without advanced engineering study. For these men, the four-year program was designed. For students seeking to become professional engineers, however, they feel that a four-year program is not enough. Hence, the five-year basic program for the first professional degree in engineering, and the foundation for advanced study.

Is this new breed of professional men the answer to the problem of the knowledge explosion, and the acceleration of technological change? To the extent that they are better equipped and better motivated to continued learning they are a partial answer to the problem, but for solutions in depth we must look farther.

With the exception of a handful of people working at the frontiers of knowledge in education, industry, and government, we as a nation are not yet aware of the nature of the fantastic era that is virtually upon us. For a decade we have been talking about the "knowledge explosion," and the "accelerating pace of technological change," but few have realized the far-reaching implications of the terms.

It is well known that research expenditures have been rising rapidly; it is widely accepted that the primary cause of the acceleration of technological change is the input of new knowledge from research; but what is not generally understood is that until recently most of the money for research was actually spent on product or process improvement, and comparatively little on fundamental research aimed at the discovery of new knowledge. What we have had since 1946 is a *technology explosion* based largely upon new uses of old knowledge.

During the past decade, however, the situation has begun to change. Because of the rise in the magnitude of spending for fundamental research, and because of the growing effectiveness of research tools, methods, and management, we are in the early stages of an unprecedented rise in the production of *new* knowledge.

As an illustration, computing science is opening up a variety of new fields that depend upon the ability of the computer to handle large volumes of data. The first applications were made in the fields of information processing and the pro-

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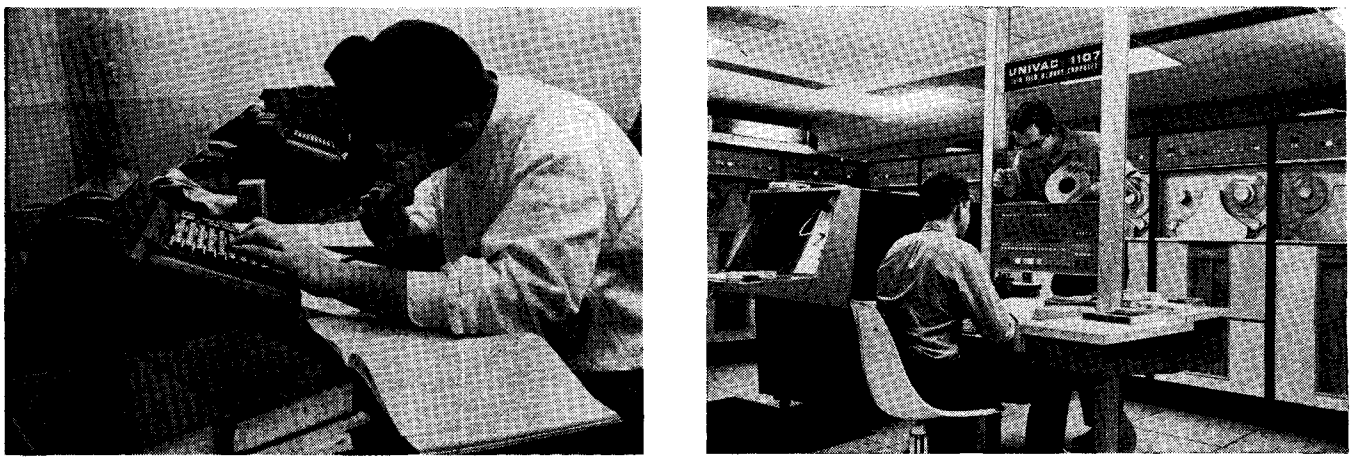

—*Ed Nano.*

Once the engineering student relied upon the calculating machines (left) to speed his solution of fundamental problems; now expensive computers (right) introduce all engineering students to new high-speed techniques of calculation.

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—Hays (Monkmeyer).

"The role of the teacher in any society lies at the heart of its intellectual and social life."

EDUCATING TEACHERS

THE NEED FOR RADICAL REFORM

By HAROLD TAYLOR

ONE OF the astonishing facts about the otherwise unastonishing White House Conference on Education of 1965 was its neglect of the problem of teacher education. All the subject got was an almost unreadable paper that rehearsed once more the conventions of Mr. Conant's thinking and ended with a curious summary of hypothetical issues, along with a two-hour panel discussion session that yielded some of the least surprising conclusions ever reported to the plenary session of any conference or to any occupant of the White House.

If one wishes to think of the conference itself as a reflection of the present situation in public rhetoric and private thinking about education in America, the place assigned to teacher education at the conference was about what it is everywhere else. That is to say, it is put off to one side and dealt with perfunctorily, as if its major questions had all been answered by a call for more academic preparation, better practice-teaching, and a less inhibiting system of accreditation. The direct link between the education of teachers and the going concerns of every sector in American society from the poor and the deprived to the intellectually and financially well-to-do, the direct connection to the major political and social issues of contemporary world society, the direct responsibility for the quality and scope of America's cultural and moral life, have all been missed or ignored.

In short, the education of teachers has been separated from the major intellectual and social forces of contemporary history. It is conceived to be the acquisition of a skill, a skill in assembling authorized information, distributing it to children and young adults, and testing their ability to receive it and reassemble it.

In fact, it is nothing of the kind. The role of the teacher in any society lies at the heart of its intellectual and social life, and it is through the teacher that each generation comes to terms with its heritage, produces new knowledge, and learns to deal with change. Provided, that is, that the teacher has been well enough educated to act as the transforming element.

The education of teachers is at the nerve center of the whole educational system, and if it fails to function there, the system fails. When we talk about equality of opportunity for all American children we are really talking about an equal chance for every child to be taught by a teacher who understands him, takes his limitations and strengths into account, and has command over a body of knowledge relevant to his teaching and to his place in contemporary society. When we talk about educating the gifted, we are really talking about people who are gifted enough to teach the gifted. When we talk about educational failures and weaknesses we are really talking about failures and weaknesses in teachers and teaching, if teaching is defined as the means through which those who are taught are enabled to learn.

Why, in the face of these facts, which are at the very least self-evident, has the education of teachers never received the attention its massive importance demands?

Mainly, I think, because the public concept of education itself has been too narrow for the large dimension of the task to which it has been assigned. The

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task is to sustain the spiritual force of a democratic ethos and, at the same time, to create the conditions out of which the millions of children and adults of an expanding society can each make a contribution to the creation of great art, great discovery, great works, great science, and a great society. In a democracy, the welfare of the society rests on its educational system.

But the concept of education held in the public mind and reflected in the practices of the schools is that of a formal training in academic subjects leading toward the achievement of a favorable position in society. Higher education thus becomes a higher form of the same kind of training, leading to a higher position in society. Lower education, or vocational training, is for those whose abilities do not reach to the expert use of language and abstractions, or skill in the academic disciplines, and who will normally occupy a lower place in the society. Those who fit neither vocational nor academic education are left without anything. They drop out, it is said. In reality they are left out.

What is missing in the concept is the idea of education as a liberation of oneself into new levels of intellect and emotion, education as a means of achieving new capacities and insights, which can then become part of the stream of contributions made by the human race in the development of societies and civilizations. The concept contains no call to lend oneself to great enterprises, to become *useful* in the larger sense.

Consequently, the idea of teaching and of the education of teachers has been narrowly conceived to fit a narrow concept, and the teacher is less an intellectual or cultural leader than an agent of social service. He prepares himself, not to serve as an example of man thinking or of man bringing ideas into life, but as man transmitting a curriculum. It follows that his education as a teacher need consist of nothing more than a knowledge of the material in the curriculum which he has learned how to transmit to pupils by studying methods of transmittal and practicing them in a classroom with practice-children.

The education of teachers, or teacher-training, to use its name, is therefore of no great consequence in the public mind. The teacher is a person who is certified as a practitioner of cultural transmission. It is not necessary for his employment that he be a scholar with an intellectual life of his own, nor is it necessary that the people who administer the schools be scholars or even teachers. They are cultural entrepreneurs, responsible to the parents and the community for seeing to it that the cultural transmission occurs properly

—*Pitkin (Monkmeyer).*

"The philosophy implicit in the Peace Corps holds the seeds of a powerful new educational movement."

and that the children become qualified for entry into further education and entry into a congenial place in society.

We will never achieve the goals we seek in education until we alter these concepts and turn again to the truth about teaching, that it is a creative art, a healing art, that it demands for its true accomplishment the qualities of character and intellect that can be gained only by those who are moved to reach out toward them. The beginning point and the secret of the whole undertaking lies in the sense of fulfilment that comes to the one who is able to make an honest act of commitment to a vocation in the true sense of that word, the kind of commitment the poet, the dancer, the painter, the sculptor, the doctor makes when he decides that this is what he must do and what he must be. Once a commitment has been made, the image of oneself as a dancer, a doctor, a scientist, an architect, a teacher, begins to take effect as a goal toward which each separate effort day by day in preparation makes its own contribution. One sets out to become what has been imagined, and the discipline of becoming is then undergone willingly and gladly, in the way the violinist lends himself to the demands of his instrument. The problem with so much of undergraduate education, for the general student and for the teacher, is that it is not undertaken for a purpose; it is not infused with energy by an act of commitment to prepare oneself for carrying out a task of known significance.

—*Fujihira (Monkmeyer).*

"It is through the teacher that each generation comes to terms with its heritage, produces new knowledge, and learns to deal with change."

It is the sense of commitment to a useful purpose that sustains the Peace Corps volunteer, both in his act of volunteering and his preparation for Peace Corps service. The volunteer is asked to give himself, in whatever his capacity, to the world's task of improving the lot of mankind. His two years of service are a contribution to the sum total of human welfare, and his self-assignment for low pay in difficult conditions is like that of the civil rights worker who leaves his career in college or elsewhere to teach and to work with the Negro in the South. To begin the reformation of teacher education it is necessary to return to the roots of the matter, in the restoration of teaching to its place among vocations.

Until now, we have never mounted a full national attack on the problem of educating teachers, using large resources in money and intellect, no matter what proclamations have been made about the crucial role of education in the national welfare. The universities have left it to the teachers' colleges, the teachers' colleges have now begun to model themselves on the universities and to seek the respectability of not being colleges for teachers. In doing so they have usually given up the idea of teaching as a vocation in favor of the idea of the teacher as a man who has met university requirements. Nor have we ever called upon American youth to take up teaching as a vocation in which all their talents can be used to the full in the cause of American society. We can no longer afford our negligence. The urgency of the present situation demands head-on action, on a large scale.

When I speak of the present situation, I begin with the proposition that the radical social changes of the post-war years have far outrun the ability of the educational system to keep up with them. It is of course true that there is always an organic connection between changes in society that force new demands upon education, which, in turn, by the character of its response, transforms the demands into a series of further changes within the society. If the demands are for more scientists and technologists, who are then produced by the educational system, the mere existence of an expanded body of

(*Continued on page* 92)

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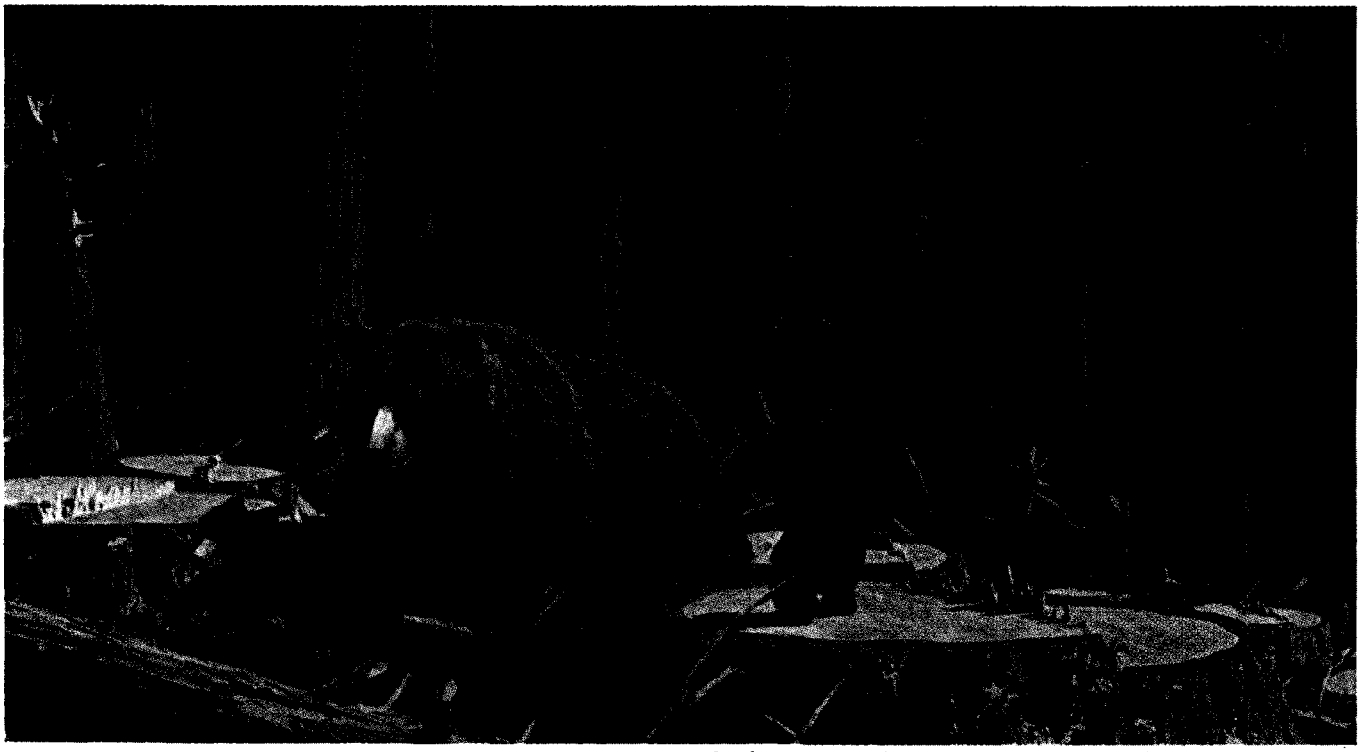

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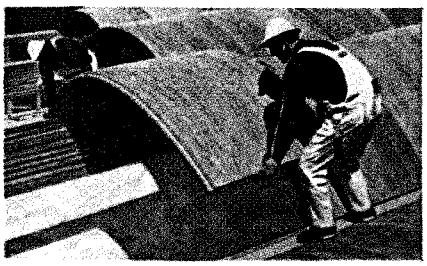

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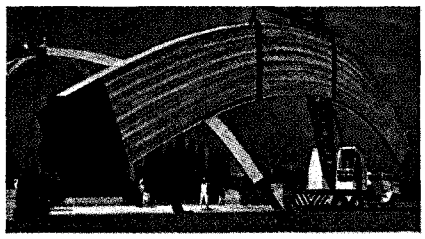

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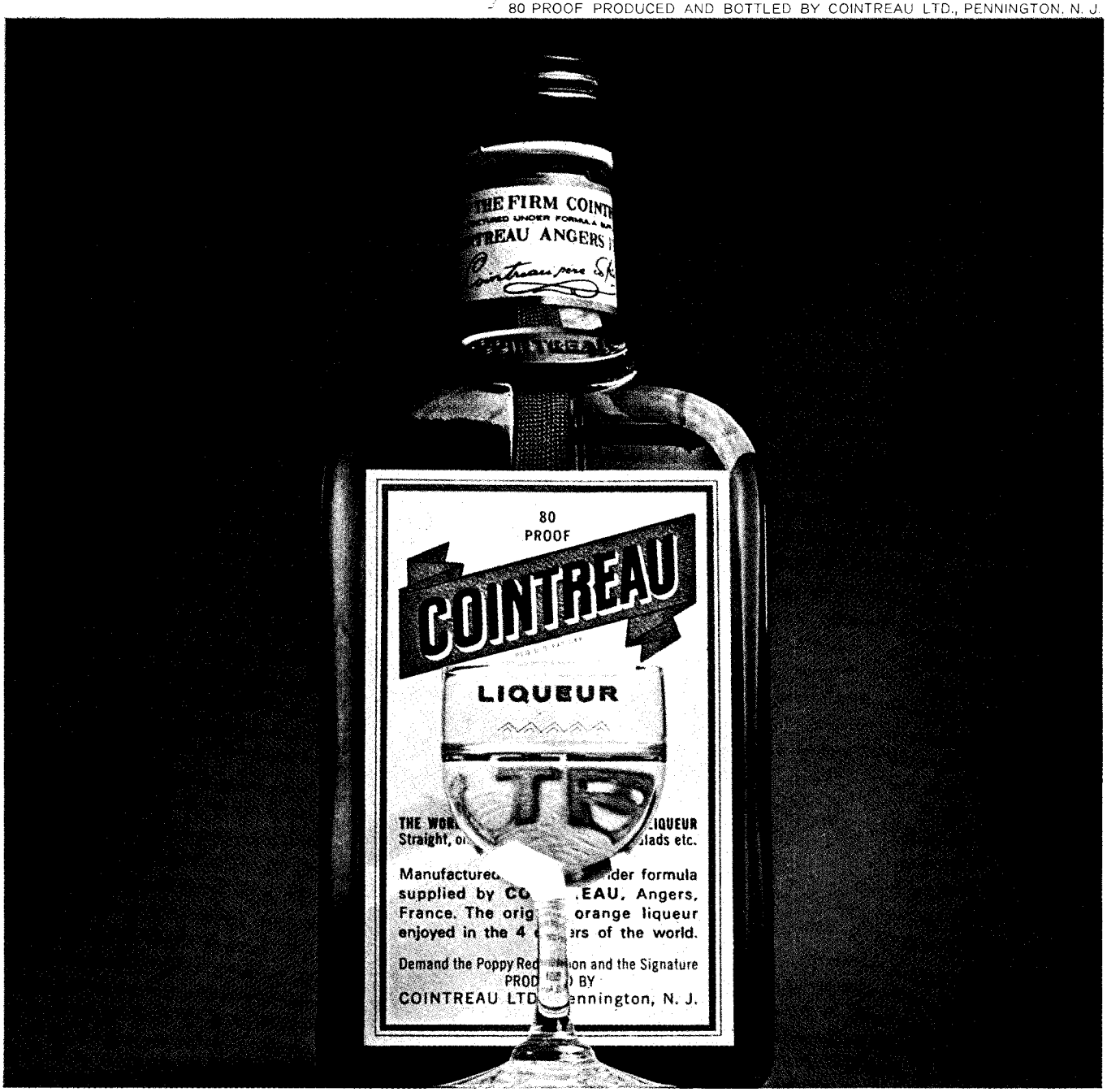

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Donald W. Robinson

PERSONAL OPINION

Chaos in the Social Studies?

On this page, each month, a distinguished educator, writer, or critic of education is given an opportunity to express his views freely on a topic of his own choosing. The opinions expressed may differ sharply from those of the editors.

By DONALD W. ROBINSON, *Associate Editor of "Phi Delta Kappan" and Chairman of the Civic Education Project of the National Council of Social Studies.*

THE most common—and the most absurd—of all the canards leveled against the social studies curriculum is the charge that it is chaotic, and that there is consequently an urgent need for revolutionary reform.

"Chaos" is a loaded word. It means confusion or disorder, and evokes images of utter aimlessness and lack of accomplishment. Therefore, when Charles Keller and other observers assert dolefully that the social studies are in a state of chaos, one wonders for whom such chaos exists. Surely not for the student.

In a most important sense there is no chaos, and can be no chaos in the social studies capable of being remedied by a new curriculum pattern, no matter how superior. There is, and should be, diversity in social studies offerings. But to mistake variety of offerings for chaos is to miss the point of democratic education.

The individual student in a four-year high school may study in successive years world geography, world history, American history, and Latin American affairs. Another student in another school may study ancient history, modern history, American history, and government. Still another may have business geography, English history, American history, and economics. In New York State alone fifty-seven different social studies courses are offered in high schools. Yet each child, if he is well taught, receives the benefits of the program to which he is exposed, regardless of what is offered in some other school. No conceivable program could introduce students to all of the possible social, political, geographical, psychological, and historical concepts that might be worth knowing. No educational system ever presumed to do this.

Coupled with the charge of chaos is the assertion that the social studies are laggard, obsolete, and anachronistic; they have produced no modern revision to rival the new math and the new physics. Typical of these claims is Mortimer Smith's assertion that "only the social studies seem to be where they were thirty or forty years ago." Although this observation may well be true of some schools, it is patently not true of the best, and not representative of the nation.

The best schools and the average schools have moved far since World War I. The political and military data that constituted history courses in most schools in the 1920s, had been supplemented by social content. The modern European history course has been replaced by a world history course that gives the student some awareness of the existence of cultures outside of the Greco-Roman tradition. Area courses, usually elective, have been introduced in such fields as Latin America, the Far East, and Africa. More courses in psychology, sociology, and economics have been introduced. And by and large the teachers are probably more knowledgeable in a broad spectrum of social studies than were the teachers of thirty or forty years ago.

But what has not been done and is not about to be done is the construction of a master plan for "the" social studies sequence for all the schools of our country. Such a notion would be as preposterous as the creation of a national commission to formulate the ideal cultural program for all Americans.

Though there is no need for an upheaval in the social studies and no need to deplore the "chaos," there is always need for continued experimentation. And there is continuing response to this need.

On a dozen campuses major experimental curriculum projects are underway with federal financing. On other campuses at least a dozen additional programs are being tested under private or collegiate auspices.

The essence of twentieth-century social studies is pluralism. It is the avoidance of dogma, indoctrination, and the "one best way." In education it prefers a hierarchy of curriculum-making in which the individual teacher, the faculty, and local administration collectively, the state authorities, the colleges and universities, a variety of professional organizations with national influence, and to a degree the federal government itself, all have contributions to make. This flexible, multi-level structure insures a considerable body of commonality in curriculum offerings even while it insures the freedom of local choice that is so strong a thread in American educational tradition.

The peculiar contribution of the social studies to the creation of thinking citizens is acceptance of divergent thinking. The social scientist must find an acceptable solution without ever considering it *the* solution.

In mathematics and the exact sciences a problem permits of one or at most two or three, correct solutions. In the fine arts a problem yields as many answers as there are artists. The social studies stand in the middle, joining the artistic world with the scientific. The social studies provide the link between the subjectivity of the one and the objectivity of the other, and must itself include large elements of both.

Consequently the approach to curriculum building must be quite different in the social studies. Any attempt to devise an official curriculum or to emulate the new math or the new physics is doomed to failure. There is no "new social studies"; there are a dozen. And they all compete in the marketplace of ideas for recognition in the courses of study that will continue to be constructed by local curriculum committees, state committees, university groups, and national councils. The variety of programs so produced may represent diversity, variety, or a potpourri—but surely not chaos.

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FINANCING HIGHER EDUCATION

By HUMPHREY DOERMANN, *Admissions Director, Harvard College.*

QUITE SOON, probably this year, the increasing amount of federal money flowing into American colleges, universities, and their associated research centers and laboratories will exceed the also increasing amount supplied by state governments. When this happens, the federal government will become the largest single source of funds for American higher education. Before this, the state governments together have been the largest source. Meanwhile, if it continues to grow at its present rate, federal spending in higher education will more than double in the next five years.

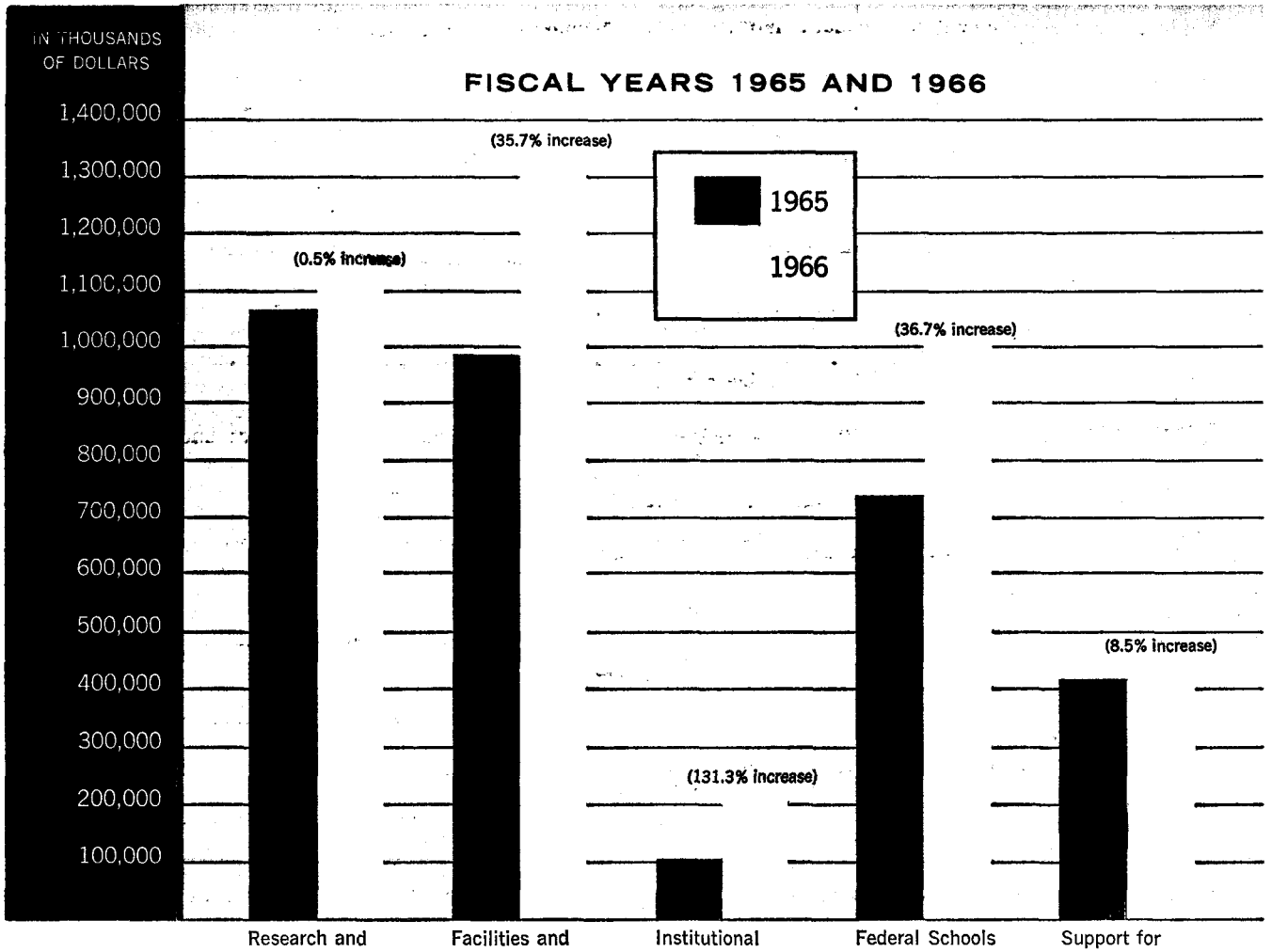
Unquestionably the forces now shaping federal policy toward colleges and universities will have a major effect on what the map of American higher education looks like ten and twenty years from now.

Until very recently the major discussions of federal policy affecting higher education emphasized piecemeal questions, which arose because they were related to other current national issues: agriculture research, science and defense, and veterans' benefits are examples. The federal Constitution does not mention education; both the Congress and the federal administrative agencies, therefore, have generally preferred to approach questions of nationwide educational policy, if at all, indirectly rather than head-on. But now, the growing size of the federal budget in education, and an increasingly uncomfortable cluster of questions that began their rapid and untidy growth during and after World War II, are forcing both educators and the federal government to examine the impact of federal money in higher education in a much more comprehensive and direct way.

Broadly speaking, at least three major sets of problems have emerged since the beginning of World War II; all three were different in nature or in size from their predecessors. They still command attention today.

The first question, which appeared in the late Thirties and early Forties, was *how to mobilize and expand the research capacity of academic science*, and then, after the war, how to keep it expanding, productive, and partially mobilized. Where, and how much should the federal government spend for science research? What kind of planning was necessary for this effort? Should this planning be centered in Washington, in the universities, or in some combination of these?

The second task was adjustment to the first postwar wave of increased college and university enrollment composed of



—Based on figures from the U.S. Office of Education.

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the veterans, and then (somewhat unexpectedly) an enlarged proportion of our high school graduates who had raised their educational sights. Once the great veterans' education subsidies receded, discussion turned to what students—if any—should receive federal support and on what basis? By the mid-Fifties it was clear that the costs of attending college or graduate school, costs which had remained stable during the depression years, were rising much faster than the level of family incomes throughout the nation. At the same time, major groups of colleges and universities that began this postwar period with student places to spare became full and began to feel insistent pressure to expand.

LAST year the full force of the third major problem came on: a new wave of college and graduate enrollments occasioned by a booming postwar birthrate, by relatively sustained prosperity, and by an economy increasingly committed to complex technology. The most reasonable-sounding available estimates of enrollment in higher education, currently about 5,400,000, suggest a doubling of this figure by 1980 if adequate college places and student financing can somehow be provided. Under these circumstances, discussion among educators, foundations, congressmen, and the federal agencies turned cautiously to the broader and more direct questions about higher education: what minimum capabilities does the nation really need in its colleges and universities—and if federal help is to assist in developing new centers of academic strength, where and how should the money be applied? These last questions perhaps deserve the greatest general interest today since any answers to them first require decisions of priority about developing different institutions in different regions—an approach that comes closer to defining an explicit national policy in higher education than the federal government has wished to come (or been permitted to come) until now. But the other problems, science and student aid, cannot be forgotten: their conditions are changing, and attempts to solve one affect all.

Developments in federal policy toward academic science have themselves become more complicated in recent years. At the beginning of World War II the mobilization of science research was largely accomplished by leaving research workers in their own laboratories, rather than by trying to create a complete network of new government facilities. The major exception to this, the forerunner of today's "big science" projects, was the atom bomb project. For the most part, government research contracts were awarded to public and private universities on the basis of how well and how fast the work seemed likely to be done. As much control as possible was left to the research investigators, and patents emerging from the work were usually left in their hands. Non-government members of the scientific community (more than 2,000 of them in 1963) were called to serve on panels and advisory committees to judge which research proposals and which investigators appeared most promising.

This general pattern for the location, planning, and execution of science research in colleges and universities—the so-called project research system—has continued to the present with little change. A recent and well-documented report by the National Academy of Sciences gives a major share of the credit for America's science leadership since World War II to this design for science research, and makes a strong plea that it remain the backbone of federal policy for basic science research in universities.

One may wonder why a pattern that seems to have worked so well for more than twenty years should require a plea for continuance. Yet criticism and competing demands for funds do come increasingly from a number of important sources.

A large commitment of funds is at stake. The federal government now spends about $2 billion for research and development (out of a total research and development budget of about $15 billion) in colleges, universities, and their associated research centers and laboratories. Almost $1 billion goes for *basic* research. This represents about 55 per cent of the total federal *basic* research budget, which the current administration hopes to expand about 10 to 15 per cent each year in the near future.

Although there is not, and probably never will be, precise agreement as to what is "basic research" and what is "development," the definitions provided in the 1964 report of the National Science Foundation are probably as well accepted as any:

> *Basic research* seeks an understanding of the laws of nature without regard for specific utilitarian value . . .
>
> *Applied research* is carried out with practical and usually, but not necessarily, specific objectives in mind . . . Much applied research seeks detailed information regarding a specific situation for which the general laws are known from basic research. . . . [But] increasing our understanding of natural laws, although important, is not the primary objective . . .
>
> *Development* applies the results of research to the production of end products.

During the past two years, congressional committees have studied federal research policies with new attention, and several congressmen have expressed sharp concern at the geographic concen-

Top Fifty Recipients Of Federal Research Money (1962 Data)

(In approximate order of dollars received)

University of California
Massachusetts Institute of Technology
Columbia University
University of Michigan
Harvard University
University of Illinois
Stanford University
University of Chicago
University of Minnesota
Cornell University
University of Wisconsin
University of Pennsylvania
New York University
Ohio State University
University of Washington (Seattle)
Johns Hopkins University
University of Texas
Yale University
Princeton University
Iowa State University
California Institute of Technology
University of Pittsburgh
Northwestern University
Brown University
University of Maryland
Pennsylvania State University
Duke University
University of Southern California
Indiana University
University of Rochester
Washington University (St. Louis)
University of Colorado
Purdue University
George Washington University
Western Reserve University
Florida State University
Yeshiva University
University of Florida
University of Oregon
University of Utah
Tulane University
University of North Carolina
Michigan State University
Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn
University of Miami
University of Tennessee
University of Iowa
Texas A. & M. College
Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute
University of Kansas

Source: *The Federal Government and Education*, 88th Congress, 1st Session, House Document 159.

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tration of research and development spending—both in industry and in universities. The economic development taking place in areas where science research concentrates is increasingly well noted; the attention given to determining the location of a new federal research activity is as intense today as that accorded to proposed major public works projects during the Thirties.

Observers within higher education, some of them witnesses at these same congressional hearings, also view the concentration of federal project research money in colleges and universities with concern, although from a different viewpoint.

If one were to order American colleges and universities by the level of degrees awarded, the summary would look like this:

Highest Degree Offered	*Number of Institutions*
Doctorate	223
Masters Degree	458
Bachelors Degree	766
Junior College	628

Federal research-money concentrates near the top of that list, helping at the same time to draw many of the nation's best scientists and science students to the same institutions, and to build inventories of government-purchased research equipment. These inventories may in turn make it more economical to sponsor similar projects at these institutions under subsequent research proposals, thus tending to reinforce concentration in federal spending. A glance at the list of the top fifty institutions ranked by order of federal research funds received, illustrates both kinds of geographic institutional concentration noted above. In 1962, for example, 38 per cent of the research and development money spent in higher education went to the ten institutions at the top of the list.

Scientists and college administrators testifying at the hearings have also pointed out that imbalances develop in the administration of large-scale project research. Institutions doing significant amounts of this work reported, in varying degrees, that the federal science money tends to encourage the favoring of science over other areas of study, of research over teaching, of graduate students over undergraduates, and of established scientists over promising newcomers; that the interlocking network of research administration tends to strengthen the loyalty of scientists to the scientific community and the government granting agencies, and to weaken their sense of responsibility to the overall needs of their department or university. Witnesses reported that increasing amounts of time were required of their scientists to serve on evaluation panels and in study groups, and to render unduly complex accounts of time and money to some of the sponsoring agencies. The university representatives also noted that the statutory limits on payment of overhead expenses for several federal agencies' research grants forced the universities to divert general university funds into expensive government research supplements to make up for unreimbursed overhead. While these amounts sometimes are large in their own right, they are often more important than the dollar figures alone would imply. Much university income is restricted to established programs, leaving relatively smaller amounts unrestricted. It is usually unrestricted money that launches new academic programs, but which at the same time must cover deficits from unreimbursed science research overhead.

However, in no case does the recitation of problems seem to have been gloomy enough to discourage colleges not now receiving federal research money. Most of their representatives in the congressional hearings seemed anxious to take on these burdens as soon as possible.

Along with pressures to alter the pattern of spending for project research come competing demands for spending in "big science." This differs from project research mainly in degree—the organization required to attack some problems is larger (and often must be created outside of the university department structure); the initial facilities also cost more, and the commitment of time to a particular problem usually must be longer. Space science, high-energy physics, and oceanography are currently the areas where the big science patterns seem strongest, listed roughly in order of current expense.

In 1963, having taken note of the need for economy in science, a distinguished panel appointed by the President's Science Advisory Committee and the General Advisory Committee of the Atomic Energy Committee, laid out a twenty-year projection of the minimum facilities that seem necessary to maintain national leadership in high-energy physics. The report advocated design and construction of several particle ac-

(*Continued on page* 89)

The Development of Federal Responsibility in Higher Education

1862 Morrill Act gave the states land for the "endowment, support and maintenance of at least one college where the leading object shall be, without excluding other scientific and classical studies, and including military tactics, to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and mechanic arts. . . ."

1887 Hatch Act provided for establishment of experiment stations in cooperation with Land-Grant colleges.

1914 Smith-Lever Act gave formal federal support and encouragement to agricultural extension work in the Land-Grant colleges.

1937 National Cancer Institute Act provided Public Health Service Fellowships to students in private institutions.

1941 Amendment to Lanham Act provided for construction, maintenance, and operation of schools in areas affected by defense activities.

1944 Servicemen's Readjustment Act provided for aid for education of veterans.

1946 Atomic Energy Commission, Office of Naval Research, National Institutes of Health become major early postwar sponsors of university-based research.

1950 National Science Foundation Act authorized the foundation "to develop and encourage the pursuit of a national policy for the promotion of basic research and education in the sciences; [and] to initiate and support basic scientific research. . . ."

1958 National Defense Education Act passed; amended in 1964.

1963 Higher Education Facilities Act provided loans and grants for construction of academic facilities for graduate schools, colleges, and technical institutes.

1965 Higher Education Act passed.

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Higher Education Act of 1965

The 1965 Higher Education Act, passed by Congress on October 20, provides a broad program of financial aid to colleges and college students. It is the first to lay major emphasis on the undergraduate student and the problems created for undergraduate colleges by the rising aspirations of young people from every social class. On the whole, it does not deal with graduate study and research, which have been so heavily emphasized in past legislation.

Because the fiscal year is already well advanced and many of the programs cannot be implemented until the next school year, Congress appropriated only $160,000,000, or 19 per cent of the authorization. The provisions for library assistance and the National Teacher Corps received no appropriation at all. However, it is expected that the administration will request supplemental funds early in the next session of Congress, and it would then be possible to obtain money for either or both of these provisions.

The key points of the bill are summarized below.

Title I: Community Service and Continuing Education Programs

Title I authorizes a three-year program to help universities and colleges assist in the solution of community problems in such areas as housing, poverty, recreation, employment, youth opportunities, transportation, health, and land use.

A community-service program is defined as an "educational program, activity or service, including a research program and university extension or continuing education offering, which is designed to assist in the solution of community problems in rural, urban or suburban areas . . ."

$10,000,000 appropriated.

Title II: College Library Assistance and Library Training and Research

Title II initiates a program to help institutions of higher education acquire library materials needed for their expanded responsibilities in research, teaching, and student use; to encourage new and enlarged college and university training programs to prepare individuals for service in the information sciences and in libraries; to promote research and demonstration projects relating to the improvement of libraries and library and information sciences; and to expand and improve the centralized cataloging service in the Library of Congress.

No funds appropriated.

Title III: Strengthening Developing Institutions

Title III aims to help raise the academic quality of qualified developing colleges that "for financial and other reasons are struggling for survival and are isolated from the main currents of academic life." The program will pay part of the cost of planning and carrying out cooperative arrangements for strengthening their academic programs.

The cooperative projects might include exchange of faculty or students, introduction of new curricula, development of cooperative work-study programs, and joint use of facilities such as libraries and laboratories.

"National Teaching Fellowships" will be authorized to graduate students and junior faculty members to encourage them to teach at developing institutions.

$5,000,000 appropriated.

Title IV: Student Assistance

Title IV provides for four types of assistance to academically qualified students in financial need.

Part A provides Educational Opportunity Grants for students showing academic promise who are in exceptional financial need and would not, but for the grant, be able to attend college.

$60,000,000 appropriated.

Part B seeks to expand programs of low-interest insured loans for students, by strengthening the reserve funds of state and private nonprofit student loan insurance programs.

$10,000,000 appropriated.

Part C would help colleges and universities expand their opportunities for part-time employment for students, giving preference to those from low-income families. Under this program the institutions would receive from the federal government 90 per cent of the cost of providing part-time employment opportunities.

$40,000,000 appropriated.

Part D amends Title II of the National Defense Education Act to provide that the fund may be used to pay one half of the administrative cost incurred by the institution, including collection costs, up to 1 per cent of outstanding loans.

No funds appropriated.

Title V: Teacher Programs

Title V established a National Teacher Corps to furnish experienced teachers and teaching teams to local schools in areas having concentrations of children from low-income families. Experienced teachers and teacher-interns who have a bachelor's degree would be enrolled in the Teacher Corps for periods of up to two years.

No funds appropriated.

A second part of Title V provides fellowships for teachers and other experienced personnel who wish to enter or reenter elementary or secondary education. These fellowships would enable the recipients to undertake two years of graduate study leading to a master's degree or its equivalent.

$20,000,000 appropriated.

Title VI: Financial Assistance for Special Equipment for Undergraduate Instruction

Title VI provides financial assistance for the acquisition of laboratory and special equipment and materials for the improvement of undergraduate instruction.

Part A provides for the purchase of laboratory and other special equipment, including audio-visual materials and television equipment and materials.

Part B provides for the operation of institutes and short-term workshops for individuals preparing to use educational media equipment in teaching in institutions of higher education, individuals preparing to become specialists in education media, or librarians or other specialists using such media.

Total appropriations for Title VI were $15,000,000.

Title VII: Amendments to Act of 1963

Title VII provides additional funds for the Higher Education Facilities Act of 1963.

No funds appropriated.

Title VIII: General Provisions

Title VIII prohibits the federal control of education under any of the provisions of this act.

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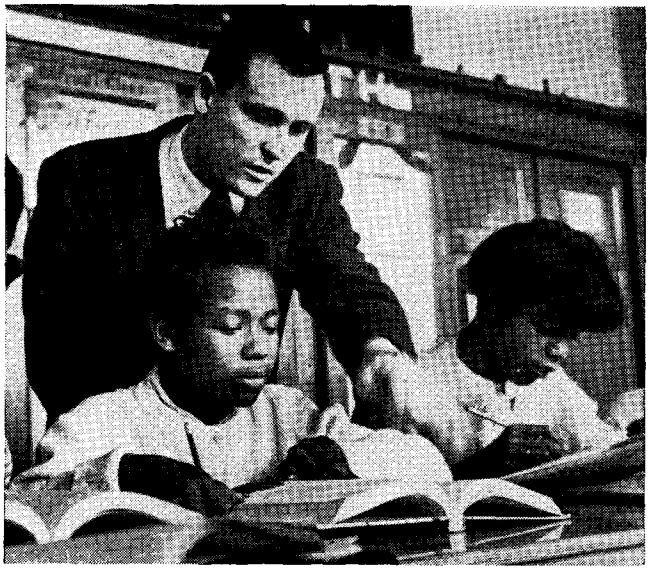
INTEGRATING A WHITE GHETTO

By JOAN V. DAVIS



—*N.Y.Times.*

Roger Wutzl of Darien takes over his class at the Harriet Beecher Stowe junior high school in Harlem.

"DARIEN'S CHILDREN are disadvantaged," asserted Dr. Gregory Coffin, the affluent Connecticut town's Superintendent of Schools. Asked how children with boats, tennis courts, and country club facilities could be disadvantaged, Dr. Coffin explained they are brought up in an all-white suburban community isolated from many of life's realities such as mixed racial, social, and economic situations, the poverty of slums, and sheer desperation. As John Harkins, English teacher at Darien High School, put it, "Well-meaning students simply lack the experience to understand human aspects of the problems. The current struggle for civil rights seems as relevant to the average student at Darien as an earthquake in Japan." These same students, Dr. Coffin points out, by virtue of their superior educational and financial background are destined to be the nation's leaders. Without previous experience with these very real problems they will be ill-equipped to handle them in business, government, and professional careers.

To provide broadening experiences to teachers and students, to combat this "ivory tower" atmosphere, Darien has initiated an experimental program of educational exchanges.

Neighboring Norwalk with its industrial and mixed population of over 70,000 has a considerably more heterogeneous student body than Darien. Its new high school, Brien McMahon, offers several courses that Darien does not, and vice versa. This past year, for the first time, therefore, five seniors from Darien took German, Italian, French IV, dramatics, and journalism at Brien McMahon. Three Brien McMahon students studied Creative Writing, and Music Appreciation and Fundamentals at Darien. Other course possibilities are Russian at Brien McMahon and Chemistry II, Biology II, and African and South American Studies at Darien High. Participants take either a first- or seventh-period class at their "second school" and transportation is privately arranged.

"Darien children need to see that Negroes fill capably the role of teachers, students, and administrators as well as the more familiar jobs of household servant, waiter, and garbage collector," Dr. Coffin asserts. To promote this he suggested an exchange between Darien teachers and Negro teachers in New York City schools. There was no lack of teacher volunteers for the project, and six Darien teachers and six New York teachers at all levels changed classrooms for three weeks in March and April. Most of the teachers commuted, but two New York teachers lived with Darien families.

At New York's High School of Commerce John Harkins taught English to boys and girls less similar to his Darien students than some he had taught at an American school in Switzerland. "The ones in Switzerland," he explained, "wore the Darien uniform," which he described as a "casual version of the dressed-up college student."

Thomas Leach, Social Studies teacher at Newtown High School, Queens, found at the end of his hour's train trip to Darien, students who after a brief introduction from him plunged into a discussion of the assignment at hand on "problems of the farmer and how to solve them" with enthusiastic questions and pertinent information.

Prior to the start of the exchange, each participating teacher met with his opposite number to discuss the work to be covered, visited the classes he or she would teach, and became acquainted with the faculty and program of the school. During the exchange, each pair of teachers met at least once a week to share ideas and discuss individual students' progress. The pairs, therefore, built up close working relationships during the three-week period. Following the exchange one pair, social studies teachers David Hartkopf and Madeline Rutledge, arranged for visits of sixty of his students to Broncksland Junior High and forty-four of her students to Mather Junior High.

The New York teacher exchange and the Norwalk student exchange are part of a four-pronged Civil Rights Education program approved by the Darien Board of Education in March 1965 for its all-white student population of 5,100. As a third facet of this program the town is attempting to hire nonwhites on all levels of the school system. In 1964-65 there were two Negro teachers and a Chinese librarian.

Moreover, teachers are encouraged to have nonwhite speakers from foreign countries and in different professions address their classes. For this purpose a Resource Speakers file has been compiled of nonwhite professionals in many fields who would accept an invitation to speak to Darien students on topics related to their work. Darien's newly acquired mobile TV unit also has been pressed into service. On November 29, 1964, Dr. Coffin, Instructional Materials Coordinator Robert Parkinson, and a team of Darien students brought the unit to the Stamford High School to tape an address by Dr. Martin Luther King. The next morning students in all ten of Darien's schools saw and heard the famed civil rights leader's words over closed-circuit TV.

A student exchange weekend on March 19, 20, and 21, 1965, brought twenty-six senior high students—sixteen Negroes, five Puerto Ricans, one Japanese, and four Jews—from New York to Darien. They stayed at the homes of Darien student hosts and joined them in their regular school routine on Friday. After dining with the host families that night they attended a convocation at which the keynote speech on "Education

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in a Changing World" was delivered by Alfred J. Mitchell, Negro principal of Eugene Field Elementary School, Teaneck, New Jersey. On Saturday a formal program of discussion and lectures was held from 10 to 3 and an informal "hootenanny" that evening. Sunday was spent with their host families. Fifty Darien students participated in the weekend, sponsored by the Darien High School Youth Forum Planning Committee, the Darien Council of School Parents, and the Darien Interfaith Human Rights Council in cooperation with the Human Relations Unit of the New York City Board of Education and the National Conference of Christians and Jews. Many of the Darien participants went into New York on Friday, April 30, for a similar program. Beckie Thompson, student chairman of the Darien High School Youth Forum Planning Committee, wrote of the Student Exchange Weekend, "For most of the Darien participants, it provided the first opportunity to meet and talk with teen-agers of a different race, religion, and economic status . . . and has met with more enthusiasm and support than anything Darien High School has attempted within the past three years."

Darien's attempts to broaden its educational experience through exchange are not limited to strictly civil rights-oriented programs. A teacher exchange is under way with Beverly Hills, California, and discussions are being held with the Pittsburgh school system, with Nova High School in Fort Lauderdale, Florida, and with school officials in Detroit for exchange programs. These "lighthouse school system" exchanges are normally for a full academic year to enable the participants to experience new programs in leading schools from within.

A program ranging farther afield is an exchange of teachers with Government College in Mercara, India. This past year Mr. Leon Clark, teacher of English at Darien High, conducted classes in Philosophy and English for Indian boys at the Government College. The system in which the students are preparing for national examinations is totally different and considerably more rigid than our high school system. Mr. Clark found his experience an awakening to realities quite different from those in Darien. "The problems here," he wrote, "are so much more acute that in comparison Darien's problems melt away. TV, for example, is only a word in India and I'm sure not one of the college students has ever seen a set. While Darien talks about overhead projectors, India strives to produce enough hand slates for the kids who sit on dirt floors in grass huts. Paper is a luxury that many schools can't afford."

Working with Mr. Clark at the college was Professor R. Muthuswamy, who spent the 1963-64 academic year in this country as Darien's first exchange teacher. Brought over by the Darien-Mercara town affiliation committee, "Muthu" studied American History at Rutgers University, New Brunswick, New Jersey, taught in the Asian Studies program at Darien High, and spoke to various school and community groups. To Darien youth he provided direct contact with another race and culture as well as his knowledge of Indian and Asian History.

MANY Darien citizens have worked hard for the success of their program with Mercara. For more than five years dark-skinned Indians have been royally entertained in their homes and warm relationships have developed between hosts and guests. The enthusiasm is not quite so unanimous, however, for the racially oriented programs closer to home. Dr. Coffin has received some "obscene and anonymous" phone calls and some letters from Darienites seriously concerned that Darien would be harmed. "Why borrow trouble?" some critics comment. "Here we have no integration problem such as other communities are struggling with, why create one?" One lady demanded a rebate in her taxes should the New York-Darien exchange go through.

Favorable comment has come, however, from many individuals and from both local and national groups. Roy Wilkins, head of the NAACP, praised the town for its exchange with New York. Dr. Coffin has been invited to speak to a number of groups about the civil rights program, thus spreading the concept to other communities.

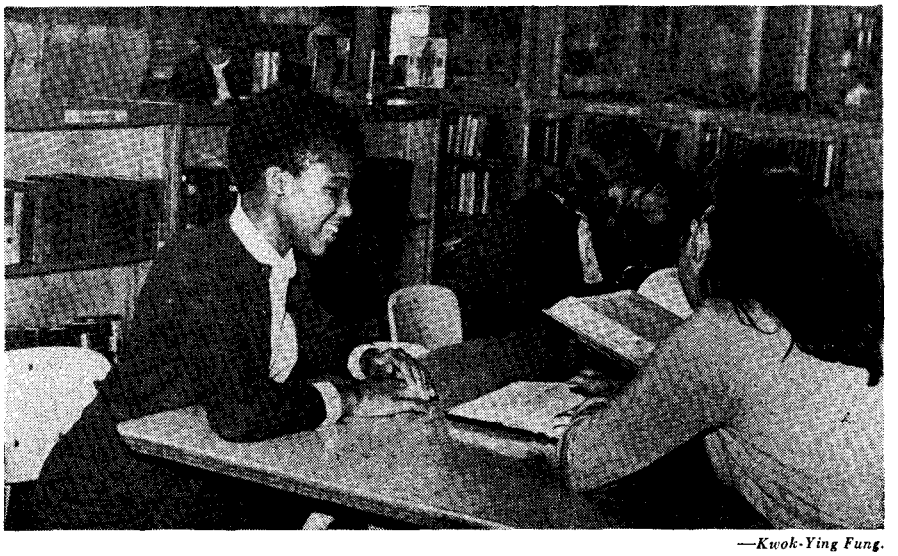
In one such talk at Teachers' College, Columbia University, Dr. Coffin pointed out, "The statement 'we don't have a problem why create one' is the index of the problem itself. . . . Unless the direct experience of contact with Negroes only as maids and garbage men can be changed, the attitudes of children in all-white communities will continue to be shaped significantly by the direct experience no matter what is taught in school."

—*Kwok-Ying Fung.*

Beatrice Hargrove, from Harriet Beecher Stowe junior high school in Harlem, answers fourth graders' questions at Darien's Hollow Tree School.

ALTHOUGH experimental and limited in application, as Dr. Coffin and the Board of Education recognize, the programs initiated in 1964-65 attempted to change these direct experiences and will be expanded during the 1965-66 academic year to reach more of Darien's young people. It is hoped that fifteen students from each school will participate in the Darien-Norwalk exchange and that Negro students from Brien McMahon will apply. In the New York-Darien teacher exchange, the goal is to increase

(*Continued on page* 95)



—*Kwok-Ying Fung.*

New York guest joins her Darien hostess at work in the high school library during Student Exchange Weekend.

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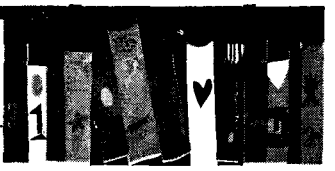
the Editor's Bookshelf



Graduate schools, which are growing even more rapidly than undergraduate colleges, must continue to grow because men and women holding advanced degrees now are eagerly sought by industry and government as well as by institutions of higher learning. The National Science Foundation predicts that the production of academic doctorates (Ph.D.s, Sc.D.s, Ed.D.s, etc., but excluding medical degrees), which has approximately doubled each decade since 1900, and now stands at about 15,000 each year, will again double by 1975 and will reach 100,000 per year well before the end of this century. Consequently, interest in the doctorate is no longer limited to a small band of academicians; tens of thousands of undergraduates now see the highest degree as an attainable goal and will seek it.

A student who wishes to pursue the Ph.D. will find the required program much the same regardless of the university he chooses. To gain admission to graduate school he must present a transcript showing a baccalaureate degree and a superior grade average, particularly in his major field. He must make high scores on the Graduate Records Examination. Once admitted, he will enroll in graduate courses and seminars for at least two years and may or may not pick up a master's degree along the way. After demonstrating his ability to read the literature of his discipline in two foreign languages, usually French and German, he must pass comprehensive written and oral examinations over his entire discipline. If he survives these hurdles he will be "admitted to candidacy," which means that he may quit taking courses and spend his time on research in preparation for the writing of a dissertation that is supposed to be "an original contribution to knowledge." If the dissertation survives the scrutiny of his faculty committee, and he can defend his thesis in an oral examination, he is granted the degree "with all the rights and privileges appertaining thereunto."

The dissertation must conform to standards of scholarship that were laid down by German professors in the nineteenth century. It must present detailed empirical evidence concerning a problem in a sharply delimited segment of an academic discipline. It must be carefully documented, erudite, ponderous, and dull. The language used and the statistics presented must be incomprehensible to anyone outside the discipline. As a part of the documentation, the student may quote freely from the opinions of other scholars but he must never express opinions of his own. His own opinions, which are called "value judgments," are not acceptable in a dissertation, nor is any hint of original literary style. No graduate school today would accept Plato's *Republic*, Bacon's *Essays*, or William James's *Pragmatism* as a doctoral dissertation and few professors see any reason why they should. Such contributions show too much originality and imagination, are not based on research, and are lacking in documentation; hence they cannot be called "scholarly."

Though university catalogues say that the program leading to the doctorate requires "at least three years of full-time study beyond the baccalaureate," it is the rare student who completes all the requirements in less than five or six years and many take ten, twelve, or fourteen years, stopping off on the way for periods of teaching. About 80 per cent of those who enter graduate school never achieve the doctorate.

The degree pattern, which was standardized early in this century by agreement among the members of the Association of American Universities, has changed little since that time, although it has been the target of a considerable amount of informed criticism. Even while the pattern was taking form, William James was writing an urbane but savage essay, "The Ph.D. Octopus," in which he said that the degree was stifling originality and promoting academic snobbery. Since that time, many committees, panels, and individuals have urged changes in the requirements. But while substantial reforms have been made in secondary and elementary education and some changes have appeared in undergraduate colleges, the graduate schools have stood firmly on their traditions. So long as colleges continue to seek their faculty recruits from the universities that cling to the tradition, and grants from foundations and the federal government flow most freely to those graduate schools that deviate least from the standard pattern, the impetus to change is lacking.

The most recent of many examinations and evaluations of the upper reaches of higher education is a series of essays titled *Graduate Education Today*, edited by Everett Walters (American Council on Education, 245 pp., $4). This is an insider's evaluation of the

From *Graduate Education Today*

"No responsible educator has ever claimed that the Ph.D. carries with it any implication, let alone guarantee, that one who has earned it will be a good teacher. The only claim which can be seriously made for it, and it is not a negligible one, is that without the kinds of qualifications for which the degree stands, one is not well equipped to teach at the college and university level, whatever other virtues he might possess. The question remains, however, whether a degree program required of teachers can claim to have met its obligations if it fails to provide any training in the art for which it purports to prepare its students. Most Ph.D.'s still go into teaching, and teaching is not less difficult or demanding than any other profession."

—Moody E. Prior, former Dean of the Graduate School at Northwestern U.

"Traditionally, educators have done less questioning about themselves and the processes of which they are an integral part than they have about the world outside the university. . . . There has been almost a professional code that encouraged free inquiry and public discussion of issues and institutions outside academia, whereas self-analysis and informative debate have been minimal."

—Allan M. Cartter, former Graduate Dean at Duke.

"The bigness and impersonality of our larger universities result in a common complaint: 'There are too many graduate students; too many tired, harassed or blasé professors; too much pressure on everybody. . . .'"

—Leonard B. Beach, Graduate Dean at Vanderbilt.

"The Master's degree, it has been said, is 'a bit like a street-walker—all things to all men (and at different prices).'"

—J. P. Elder quoted by John Snell, Dean of Graduate School at Tulane U.

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problems; all the contributors are, or have been, deans of graduate schools in major universities. The authors are well informed and write in a language understandable to the general reader—a fact which indicates that they wrote their own dissertations long enough ago to have recovered from the literary style imposed upon them by their professorial committees.

Several of the authors express alarm over the problems facing graduate education and see a need for minor changes. Some of them predict that major changes will be forced upon them by the growing numbers of students but they see no great need for any substantial improvement in the basic pattern—it will be enough to hold the graduate schools to their present standards in the face of rising numbers. In a concluding chapter Allan Cartter, formerly graduate dean at Duke and now vice president of the American Council on Education, expresses alarm at the increasing number of universities granting the doctorate and says, "As the center of gravity shifts to the non-AAU institutions and from private to public universities, standards of high quality may be more difficult to maintain . . . . the older and more restricted membership of the Association of Graduate Schools may find its continuing role as the guardian of standards in graduate education." The other authors seem to agree that their task of leadership is that of maintaining present standards.

All this is very well if we agree that the program leading to the doctorate was soundly conceived in the first place and that past and present standards are adequate to provide the kinds of scholars and scholarship needed in the last third of the twentieth century and the first half of the twenty-first. But if we have doubts on either score—as I for one do on both—it is not enough to hold the line. The real need is for more imaginative thinking and a clearer vision of the future that will lead to dramatic reforms at the doctoral level and give scholarship a deeper meaning. It is to be hoped that some of the newer graduate schools will challenge the pattern instead of conforming blindly to it.

—PAUL WOODRING.

Stimulus to Dialogue

Coming of Age in America: Growth and Acquiescence, *by Edgar Z. Friedenberg (Random House, 300 pp., $5.95), is a critical analysis and interpretation of the impact our mass culture has—largely through the schools—on the nation's youth. The reviewer is Associate Professor of Psychology and Education at Teachers College, Columbia University.*

By MIRIAM L. GOLDBERG

NO MATTER what the final verdict may be regarding the contribution of *Coming of Age in America* to educational theory or practice, its immediate effect is to engage the reader in an intense dialogue on crucial social and educational issues and to force him to clarify his own beliefs and commitments. It is not a simple matter of agreeing or disagreeing with Professor Friedenberg; one is forced to do both. And sometimes, within a simple paragraph, the reader shifts from the pleasure of complete agreement, impelled to commend the author for his brilliant treatment of what is so obviously true, to angry disagreement and the urge to show him up for his errors, misinterpretations, and downright nonsense.

Despite the suggestion of its title, and even though it does make some use of the testimony of "informants," *Coming of Age in America* is not an anthropological study. Nor is it, despite the inclusion of some quantified data derived from student responses, a report of a disciplined sociological inquiry. It is even less a psychological study of the problems of adolescence. It is, rather, an impassioned and penetrating statement of a deeply personal, highly idiosyncratic socio-educational credo that defies assignment to any of the standard political or educational ideologies and combines beliefs and attitudes derived from what would normally appear to be contradictory positions.

As champion of the American adolescent, Friedenberg has entered the lists to protect youth's potential for future social change from the apparently benign but essentially destructive pressures of our mass culture. The institutional arrangements by which they are controlled—economic dependence, compulsory education, legitimized intrusion of their privacy, reward for compliance and punishment for deviance from the accepted social norms—sap their creative powers and make of the majority acquiescent if not active supporters of the status quo. His major adversary in the battle for freeing the minds and souls of youth is the school, and he lashes out at it mercilessly for actively abetting society's determination to "establish and maintain hegemony" over the adolescent society by "techniques of infiltration and control" rather than fulfilling its true purpose of helping young people "to examine the sources of their pain and conflict and think its meaning through, using their continuing experience of life to help them build better social arrangements."

Adolescents, claims Friedenberg, "are among the last social groups in the world to be given the full nineteenth-century colonial treatment." But it is a benevolent colonialism. It exploits and controls through sympathy and understanding rather than through repressive force. For youth-serving agencies, "like a Colonial Office," begin "with the assumption that the long-term interests of their clientele are consistent with the present interests of their sponsor." The young are kindly led to accept the school's authority, and, in fact, to identify "as the weak must, with the more powerful and frustrating forces that impinge upon them . . . and close their minds against the anxiety of perceiving alternatives." Thus "the school effectively obstructs their learning of the principles on which objection might be based; though these are among the principles that, we boast, distinguish us from totalitarian societies." This insures the commitment of the young to perpetuate the static nature of mass culture, "repudiate the divergent elements of their character," and accept the norms of "genteel decency" as the only legitimate means for attaining social status. Through its system of rewards and punishments and its psychological and guidance services, the school exorcises whatever potential for creating "better social arrangements" the adolescent may naturally possess.

Thus far in the argument we hear a liberal position: a plea for greater freedom and dignity for the individual, even though he be young; a strong urging to protect his deviance, save his selfhood from destruction by the adult world that fears him and controls him not so much for the damage he may do today, but for the revolution he may incite tomorrow. One cannot help but acclaim Dr. Friedenberg's exposure of the petty tyranny of the typical high school; its police-like rigidities; its gloomy atmos-

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phere, despite wide expanses of glass; and the indignities that its concept of maintaining order imposes on the individual student and often on the teacher as well. And one deplores along with him the values of young people that fail to accord status and include in the delegation to the visiting king who wanted to meet "spirited young people" the gifted young violinist, or the boy who "is supposed to be a genius" in mathematics and science, edits the school literary magazine, but argues with teachers and dresses sloppily. Nor can one take issue with Friedenberg's disdain for educational institutions that justify their existence by preparing students to achieve economic and social success rather than fostering their intellectual development and self-understanding.

But in assigning the blame (as he does with persistent vigor) to the school for what he considers the distorted values of the majority of adolescents, Friedenberg joins the ranks of other social critics who unwittingly compliment the school by endowing it with powers it doesn't have and then castigate it for failing to exercise these powers in changing the social conditions which the critics deplore. Fortunately or unfortunately, there is little evidence to support the assumption that the school ". . . alters individuals . . . , their values, their sense of personal worth, their patterns of anxiety and sense of mastery and ease in the world. . . ." The essential beliefs and modes of behavior of adolescents appear to be quite well established before they enter the high school. It is doubtful that the school can do more than perform a "Darwinian function" by supporting and reinforcing the values held by the society that supports it—values that are accepted by and reflected in the beliefs and attitudes of the majority of the adolescents themselves—and rejecting those who do not conform to its standards. In fact, when the values and behavior pattern of students vary from those of the school, as in the case of both lower-class and upper-class students, the school remains, despite its best efforts, powerless to effect significant changes.

However, one must question, with Friedenberg, whether the school can create a climate more conducive to divergence of opinion and the development of greater individual autonomy, and whether a state-supported institution dare provide more opportunities for "disciplined devotion" to causes and give the adolescent help in exploring the purpose of his life and arriving at personally meaningful goals. Friedenberg answers these questions with an unshakable no. And here many will disagree. For there are schools that reward divergence of ideas, although they may continue punishing smoking in the men's room. More and more teachers, though by no means a majority, are seeking out and supporting the uniquely talanted, even if socially deviant, student. What the school cannot do without transgressing against its very nature is to condone or even ignore the behavior of those who will not learn or who interfere with the academic performance of others.

NOT all divergence is of equal potential for constructive social change. While one must, as Friedenberg does, feel indignation at institutional forms that muzzle creative ideas, even when they appear silly, or punish the "committed deviant" for a set of values that differ from the prevailing ones, one wonders whether the right to remain illiterate is one of our inalienable rights and whether a gifted adolescent's failure to develop at least some of his talents does not sanction the schools' invasion of his psychological privacy?

But more serious questions are raised when we come face to face with the nature of the "better social arrangements" that Friedenberg seeks and the methods he proposes for their achievement. He wants a society that will provide maximum "individual freedom and dignity" and maintains that these are incompatible with the provision of "justice and equality in a mass society." He wants rewards for individual excellence, unique talents, and self-directed, autonomous people and, unlike Gardner, maintains that a society committed to equal opportunity cannot foster individual excellence. Friedenberg finds "rather offensive" any attempt on the part of the educational enterprise to modify its materials and procedures in order to reach and educate larger numbers of disadvantaged pupils. Like "the most effective merchandizing techniques," such efforts "violate individual privacy and dignity" and reflect the false assumption that the disadvantaged will be better off by accepting the school's teaching. The alternative, it seems, is to let the poor remain poor and the illiterate remain illiterate, all in the name of respecting their liberties. Friedenberg remains strangely unconcerned with the possibility that poverty and illiteracy and the values they breed may be as destructive of the individual's dignity and self-realization, as much a bar to his humane development, as they are to his achievement of economic security and social status.

Disparagement of all the values implicit in social mobility, respect for the rights of the poor and disadvantaged to retain their way of life, and the belief that "one of our most urgent needs is for more gentlemen" implies a perception of "better social arrangements" that is, in reality, a romantic nostalgia for a society in which each person knew his place, kept it, and derived his identity from his assigned role and his satisfaction from knowing that he fulfilled it well. Like Friedenberg, such a society frowned upon the social climber and showed contempt, not for the lowly "tweeny," but for the man who made his money "in trade." Here the aristocratic gentleman could flourish, unfettered by "grubby puritan prejudice" or leveling egalitarianism; for his privileged position and idiosyncratic behavior remained unassailed either by the social strivings of others or by his own anxieties. But somehow, these apparently idyllic social arrangements were not viewed with equal favor by all those who lived under them, for they gave rise to revolutions in almost all countries in which they prevailed.

Such an aristocratic social perception would normally conflict with a liberal and humanitarian ideology. But not for Professor Friedenberg. He reconciles them first by exposing the open, mass society which he despises as destructive of human liberty and dignity (the very essence of the liberal dream) and, in the second place, by locating the

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source of future "gentlemen" almost exclusively within the ranks of those who are now most disadvantaged—the Negroes, who have "so much more often developed and retained an aristocratic personal style and sense of responsibility . . . primarily because they have been excluded from the pettier temptations of the opportunity structure." And his liberal conscience is further assuaged by proposing as a partial solution to the present educational plight the creation of special, voluntary boarding schools whose clientele would be drawn largely from the most able of the poor and disadvantaged, schools that would provide, through federal support, the amenities of living as well as the facilities and teaching staffs that might "best nurture their latent aristocratic potential," and that would add to our society "more trustworthy and more humane people. . . ." Perhaps not all his readers will find this kind of reconciliation palatable.

Despite the weakness of the "research design" from which Professor Friedenberg draws illustrations and validation for his obviously pre-existing conclusions, and despite his tendency to generalize from insufficient data, *Coming of Age in America* remains eminently worthwhile reading. It provokes and challenges, exposes the undersides of cherished beliefs, and while inducing anger or derision, still makes the reader somewhat doubtful about his own commitments and convictions. The book is itself a model of the qualities the author cherishes and finds wanting in our schools: it has style and charm and it boldly presents ideas that diverge in all directions from any standard point of view. Above all, it forms an intimate if not always comfortable relationship with the reader, who, in the process, must also expose himself.

New Books

The Use of Explosive Ideas in Education. *By Theodore Brameld. University of Pittsburgh Press (Pittsburgh, Pa.).* 248 *pp. Paper,* $2.25. Brings educational theory and philosophy together with the liberal arts in a multidisciplinary approach to educational practice. The "explosive ideas" are culture, class, and evolution.

Teaching in the Slum School. *By Robert D. Strom. Charles E. Merrill Books (Columbus, Ohio).* 116 *pp. Cloth,* $3.95. *Paper,* $1.95. Presents an overview of important concerns which can influence failure or progress in the classroom. Directed mainly at beginning teachers in slum schools.

Beyond All Those Books. *By David Mallery. National Association of Independent Schools (4 Liberty Square, Boston, Mass.).* 56 *pp. Paper,* $1. Focuses on programs which a number of secondary schools have made accessible to their students in response to the need for learning experiences and useful work in the society beyond the classroom.

A Turning to Take Next: Alternative Goals in the Education of Women. *By Freda H. Goldman. Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults (138 Mountfort St., Brookline, Mass.).* 57 *pp. Paper,* $1.50 *(quantity discounts).* Takes a critical look at adult education for women and offers some positive proposals for its improvement.

Learning Your Way Through College. *By William C. Resnick and David H. Heller. Charles E. Merrill Books (Columbus, Ohio).* 162 *pp. Paper,* $1.95. Attempts to show the individual student how to select more effective study techniques.

Catholic Education: A Book of Readings. *Edited by Walter B. Kolesnik and Edward J. Power. McGraw-Hill.* 512 *pp. Cloth,* $5.95. *Paper,* $4.50. A selection of articles taken from professional and Catholic periodicals.

A Guide to Graduate Study: Programs Leading to the Ph.D. Degree. *Third Edition. Edited by Jane Graham. American Council on Education (1785 Massachusetts Ave., N.W., Room 515, Washington, D.C.).* 609 *pp.* $7.50. Up-to-date information on over 200 graduate schools in the United States, and detailed descriptions of their offerings.

A Climate for Individuality. *American Association of School Administrators, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Association of Secondary School Principals, NEA Department of Rural Education (National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington, D.C.).* 56 *pp. Paper,* $2. Statement of the Joint Project on the Individual and the School, which aimed to find how the school can encourage special talent and individual development.

Federal Financing

Continued from page 82

celerators, including one capable of operating at 800 billion electron-volts (the Brookhaven machine, with a capacity of 33 billion electron-volts, is the highest energy American installation operating today).

By 1975, according to the projections, the annual expenditure for high energy physics alone might be over half a billion dollars, uncomfortably close to the sum of all federal spending for basic academic science research today.

The biggest particle accelerator recommended by the panel would cost nearly a billion dollars to build over a period of eight years, and about $180,000,000 a year to operate. Whatever the congressional instinct for geographical distribution of science money, this huge expense will be a concentrated one if it is made, and its location seems almost certain to be a major political question as well as one of scientific appropriateness.

While pressures grow and change in federal science policy and in the portions of the science budget spent in higher education, the patterns of federal support for students are also going through a quiet revolution. There are two separate, major patterns, one for graduate students, one for undergraduates.

Graduate study in the United States is relatively new; it began its most rapid expansion after World War I. In 1920, for instance, the United States produced only 620 earned doctorates; by 1960, the nation produced nearly 10,000 each year. Individual graduate students more often receive financial aid than do undergraduates. Bernard Berelson's book, *Graduate Education in the United States,* notes a recent survey conducted by the National Opinion Research Council reporting that only 8 per cent of the doctorate recipients surveyed had *not* received some kind of scholarship, assistantship, or fellowship on their way to the degree.

Post-Sputnik federal student-aid programs have given particularly strong encouragement to the expansion of graduate education. At first, these aid programs were generally limited to engineering, health sciences, and other sciences most closely related to defense research. Now the coverage is expanding into the social sciences and humanities. The amount of federal money spent to support graduate students is much smaller than the amount spent in project research; but graduate study and science research are closely linked, and the pattern of concentration of federal spending in a minority of the nation's colleges and universities is almost the same in gradu-

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ate student support as it is for science research and development.

In 1963, the most recent year for which a complete tabulation is readily available, the federal government provided support for roughly 43,000 doctoral candidates, and for about 100,000 graduate students at all levels beyond the bachelor's degree. The government plans to provide graduate fellowships, grants, and traineeships to over 8,500 more graduate students in the fiscal year 1966 than in the previous year, a gain in these numbers of close to 20 per cent.

Awards to graduate students are made on the basis of apparent promise. They are for flat amounts, depending on the program and the awarding agency. They sometimes also include allowances for research supplies, and for additional dependents. The size of the award, however, is not scaled in inverse proportion to parents' income—which is increasingly the pattern for scholarship awards to undergraduates. Annual base stipends in 1962 ranged from $1,800 to $4,000. It seems almost certain now that significant increases in graduate student support by the federal government will continue at least for the next three or four years.

Although the federal government aids more undergraduates than graduate students, it generally does so in smaller individual amounts—which up until this year have usually been undergraduate loans, not grants or scholarships.

But Title IV of the Higher Education Act of 1965 (which was passed by Congress last month) for the first time incorporates in federal legislation a "packaging" design for undergraduate financial aid. Combining scholarship grants, loans, and jobs to help support individual students has been a fixture in relatively high-tuition private colleges for several years, but has been much less common for undergraduates elsewhere.

Title IV of this Act also extends authorization for the National Defense student loan program to 1971, and increases its size. In 1965-66, these loans are expected to total $225,000,000, which would be roughly two thirds of all U.S. college-student loans.

The Act also inaugurates the first large-scale federal undergraduate scholarship program—a program for students from low-income families, most of whom will probably be enrolled in public colleges. It permits colleges to award individual federal grants of from $200 to $800 each (the size varying with student financial need), designed also to fit in with up to fifteen hours a week of student work, a student loan, or both. To hold a federal scholarship award, a student has to be attending college full-time, be under twenty-one and doing satisfactory work. Unlike many scholarships, it is not a competitive academic-excellence award except that the maintenance of satisfactory standing is required. The first year's authorization permits awards averaging $500 each to 140,000 students, and, according to the U.S. Office of Education, will increase the total level of all college undergraduate scholarship awards nationally by almost 20 per cent. Private and institutional sources still provide the majority of these funds.

Title IV of the Act also enlarges rapidly the college work-study program that was initiated under last year's antipoverty legislation, and transfers it to the administration of the Office of Education.

Finally, Title IV provides a program of guaranteed medium-interest loans (higher than the 3 per cent charged for Defense loans but lower than prevailing commercial rates) for students from families whose income is too high to pass the need tests in the programs above. Students under this program can borrow up to $1,500 a year (not to exceed $6,000 total for college students and $9,000 for graduate students).

The student support in the Higher Education Act of 1965 and in the other existing federal programs is far greater than was provided ten years ago, but not nearly as great as during the early postwar years when, at the 1947-48 high point, more than half the nation's college and university students were enrolled under the auspices of the G.I. Bill.

Along with the changing shape of science policy and the great changes in student aid there appears to be increasing agreement in the Congress, the administration, and higher education, that the existing colleges and universities, at their present levels of strength, will be able to meet neither the enrollment demands nor the foreseeable needs of the nation for highly trained manpower in the decades just ahead. Already, in many ways, inside and outside of the science budget, more money is being spent to strengthen institutions and to support students, as well as to underwrite specific research efforts and build new facilities.

The trend toward government investment in the future capability of institutions (as opposed to merely contracting for their current services) and the manner in which this investment is made, may affect the map of American higher education in as important a way as government project research affected it during World War II, or as the Land-Grant Act affected it a hundred years ago. The amounts that will be spent this year and next do not come close to justifying such strong language, but the developing precedents and the existing pressures seem to.

It is unlikely that institutional development money will, or should be spent solely on the basis of present apparent capability. This choice probably would tend to reinforce the pattern of concentration of funds, which has been of concern in the recent congressional hearings. Institutions now performing large amounts of project research, however, do hope that it will be possible to include within a larger pattern some institutional grants for them to help redress some of the imbalances caused by their heavy science-research involvement.

It also seems unlikely that Congress and the administration will be willing to proceed solely on the opposite and politically uncomplicated assumption that every institution represents an equally promising possibility for development and should therefore be aided on some mathematical formula basis that reflects this assumption.

Finally, it seems unlikely that any major new patterns of institutional development will be controlled in a single federal agency (more than forty agencies now spend money in colleges and universities), directed to a single segment of higher education, or operated by a single fund-allocation mechanism.

The pattern of development which will probably take place is much harder to guess, although a few of the current programs suggest possibilities. Two important programs, which will make their first grants this year, are the Science Development Program of the National Science Foundation and the Graduate Facilities Program under Title II of the Higher Education Facilities Act of 1963. (These are not the only institutional-grant programs operating, however.) The Science Development Program, which may spend up to $28,000,000 this year, will award grants of up to $5,000,000 or $6,000,000 each to colleges or universities that have good strength in science education now, but which could be excellent given a large three-to-five year transfusion. Geographic distribution will be one consideration in making the awards, but not the controlling one.

Under the Graduate Facilities Pro-

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gram, the Office of Education may spend up to $60,000,000 this year for matching grants "to improve existing graduate schools and cooperative graduate centers and to assist in the establishment of . . . centers of excellence." No more than an eighth of the annual appropriation in this program may be spent in a single state.

Institutional grants have been made before, but this is the first time, except in war, that national panels have been convened with authority to recommend such large federal grants so selectively and yet with so few criteria specified in advance.

ALTHOUGH more limited in purpose, these two federal programs are similar in many ways to the Ford Foundation's program for college and university development, which from 1960 to 1964 has made matching grants of more than $200,000,000 to thirteen Negro colleges, ten private universities, and forty-seven private liberal arts colleges. The Ford Foundation and the government programs both attempt to assure themselves before making any grants that the college or university receiving the money will make important progress as a result, that it will undertake other fund-raising efforts at the same time, and that it will find a way of carrying on at the new level of performance once the grant money has been spent.

It is not yet clear whether the national advisory panels appointed by federal administrative agencies, and the agencies themselves, will be able to exercise the kind of independent judgment which the private foundations have been able to, particularly if the agencies are charged with spending increasingly large amounts of money, and with subjective judgment an important ingredient in deciding where to spend. Certainly the advisory panel system will be under greater strains than it has faced in administering the agencies' project-research programs.

The other major government mechanism for disbursing institutional development money has operated longer, and spends a larger share of the total; money is allocated to the states to spend according to standards set by previous federal regulatory instructions. The original Land-Grant distributions were made this way; today the federal student-loan funds and college building construction grants are the major examples of funds apportioned first to the states, and then by the states to individual institutions.

Neither mechanism, of itself, assures the exercise of good (or bad) judgment in deciding where to spend; both systems have their strong advocates, and both, with variations, probably will see greater service in the near future.

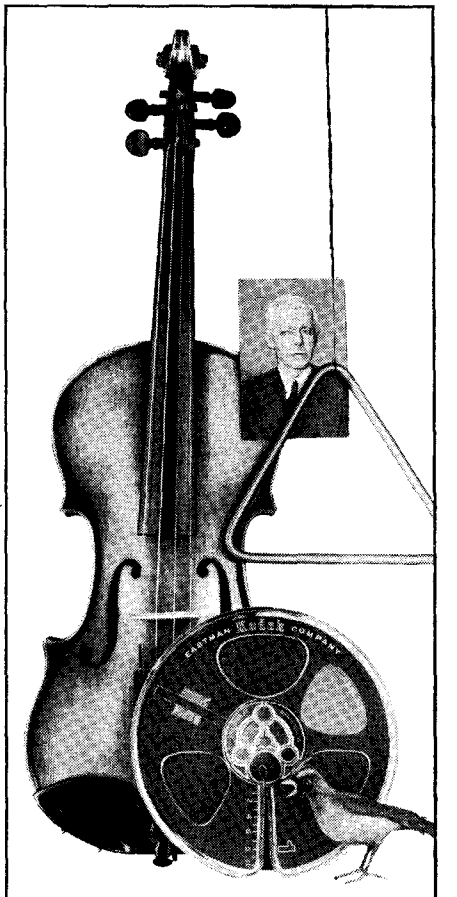
Some observers feel that the national-panel-federal-agency system of large direct grants to colleges and universities will prove inappropriate for any major program of institutional development, and also feel that this question will not be answered best by chopping it into as many as fifty different state segments, no matter how good the state-level judgment may be. They propose instead experimenting with a compromise: a regional allocation of development funds. Regional approaches have been tried in antipoverty legislation and in major public works programs, but not in higher education.

The present level of spending, and the likelihood of further increases, raises the question of whether the price of expansion will be unwanted federal control over American colleges and universities. The question will not be settled in any general way, since one man's "control" may be another man's "assistance" and since total agreement will never be reached about what is wanted and what is unwanted.

Certainly, as federal spending in higher education becomes a larger proportion of the total, its impact will be greater also. Perhaps even more important, the federal input is now great enough so that significant cutbacks could have tremendous effect in the areas where they might occur. A report of the House Select Committee on Government Research noted last year, for instance, that the science programs of many universities would be decimated if federal science-research grants should cease unexpectedly.

MOST of the new federal programs have been designed to operate under the guidance of university and public advisory panels, or under the decentralized administration of state commissions, but this does not imply a "hands off" federal government attitude toward higher education, once its programs have been set in motion. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 (for example, is designed to exert as much federal economic leverage as possible against racial discrimination in colleges and universities.

Meanwhile, the prospects for large, increasing, and more balanced federal expenditure in higher education and in academic science seem stronger today than at any time since World War II. But these prospects depend on the nation's political mood, and whether or not other national programs come to seem more urgent. Only a few years ago one might reasonably have predicted that available federal money would be spent for underground bomb shelters, not above-ground classroom buildings. A change in the priorities of civil defense or missile defense could reverse signals again, however remote the possibility may seem at present.



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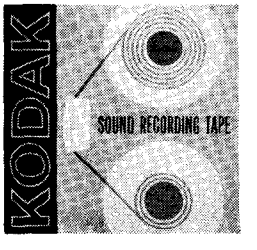

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Radical Reform

Continued from page 76

scientific talent produces new possibilities for change within the society. Except in general terms, certain of the changes can neither be predicted nor controlled; the process of change has a life of its own and throws off events and phenomena that cannot be stopped and that simply must be dealt with.

In the early Fifties, who would have predicted with any confidence that in the middle of the Sixties the major world issue facing America would be the problem of a war in Vietnam and the major domestic question would be a rapidly developing social revolution inspired by the Negro protest movement? Who would have predicted that the major legislation racing through the 1965 Congress would be an extraordinarily far-reaching series of measures having to do with civil rights and education, or that a Southern President whose career had included high school teaching would put education at the top of the national agenda?

Yet the function of education is to anticipate and to give direction to changes that are occurring day by day within world society and its local counterparts, not simply to confirm those changes. The circumstances of contemporary American society are now making extreme demands that the educational system is not ready to meet—demands for an education of quality for those who have until now been deprived of it, demands for the reconstruction of society from top to bottom in order to bring the fruits of an expanding economy in a post-industrial era to all American citizens. The dimensions of the reconstruction reach from establishment of equality in economic and social opportunity to the enrichment of the cultural and esthetic life of all citizens.

When we look for the sources of new ideas in education to meet these needs, we find them more often among the energetic and concerned activists of government, busy with new plans and new legislation, and among the activist college students, than we do in the ranks of the educators. In fact, few people outside government have come to understand the enormous power for educational and social change that lies in the new federal legislation. It is jammed with educational provisions, not merely in the clauses of the Elementary and Secondary School Act, but in the Community Action program of the Civil Rights Bill, the Economic Opportunity Act with its Job Training Centers, the Domestic Service Corps, VISTA, Head Start, the Peace Corps.

Although it has never been fully described, there is a social and educational philosophy implicit in the legislation that holds the seeds of a powerful new educational movement. The Anti-Poverty Program and the Peace Corps movement are a call to public service; the funds provided by the legislation are merely the catalyst for voluntary effort. A power for action through this legislation lies in the deep strain of voluntarism and individualism in American life out of which have come the thousands of voluntary organizations to deal with everything from protecting animals and children to directing American foreign policy. It also lies in the progressive tradition of social thinking that has its roots in Emerson, Horace Mann, John Dewey and others—the idea of participatory democracy, indigenous leadership, activism, pluralism, experimentalism, with the test of an idea to be found in the way it works in practice.

It is this power that must now be used in joining the forces of social change in a frontal attack on the problem of educating teachers. We have already seen the power at work in the student movement in civil rights through which dozens of new programs in education, both for teachers and for children, have emerged in the Freedom Schools established by students and in the adult education programs that they have organized as part of voter-registration projects. The students from the North, the West, and the Midwest who in these past three years have volunteered for service in the rural South and in the slums of big cities found themselves immediately faced with all the problems of education as soon as they joined the movement. In one sense the student movement became one vast program in teacher education, in which the student volunteers were forced to educate themselves, to invent their own teaching methods, write their own mimeographed texts, organize their own classes, create their own curricula, and motivate their students while surrounded by a hostile and potentially dangerous white community.

As they joined forces with the young Southern Negroes whose education had either been interrupted or had never begun, the white college students began to see ways in which college study, if it were made relevant to actual conditions within American and world society, could become an essential component in the development of political awareness and social action. Knowledge was seen as something necessary to the achievement of broad social goals. In some cases the students developed new work-study programs and proposals for their own education that were accepted by colleges and universities on their return there; in other cases they called upon faculty members in schools of education and universities for special help in teaching courses and seminars on the spot to the Southern students, Negro and white.

In a comparable way, the experience of the Peace Corps volunteer abroad could be classified as a program in teacher education through which he learns to use his wits to find the ways of being useful to the community he serves. He may not be teaching a school subject, although in many cases he is thrust into service as an English or science teacher whether he has been prepared for it or not, but whatever he does abroad is an aspect of the task of teachers—to help a community to help itself.

We have here the concept and the elements for a radical reform in the education of the American teacher. The reform starts with an exact reversal of the philosophy dominant in present programs. That is to say, rather than thinking of the number of courses, credits, and subjects necessary to certify a teacher, we set aside all formal requirements and start from the beginning with the question of what is to be done to enhance the personal and intellectual growth of the person who is learning to be a teacher.

ONE of the first things we would then do is invite all those students who have done volunteer service in the rural and urban slums to come into the schools of education and the universities to work out fresh and interesting programs of study and experience through which they could prepare to become members of the teaching profession. A general invitation would be made to all other interested youths to join in a national recruitment of teachers backed by state and federal scholarships.

For those interested in social science or literature or biology or sculpture, arrangements would be made for work in depth in the field of their concern, regardless of whether or not they intended to teach in it. Each student would be asked to work out a tentative study plan for his first two years, identifying the areas of study he proposes for his own education and the reasons he has chosen them. Each would be asked to suggest an appropriate program of field work for himself, either in a nonresident term or year devoted to the civil rights movements, Vista, counseling, or elsewhere in government or private social welfare programs.

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Each would be asked to choose one of the creative arts in which to engage himself for a time, to suggest possibilities for foreign travel, work, and study of the kind developed through the Experiment in International Living.

Direct relations would be established between federal and state agencies responsible for various parts of the Anti-poverty program and social welfare legislation, to discover how students preparing to become teachers could work directly in the programs as part of their curriculum. Other arrangements would be made with the Peace Corps for a variety of programs similar to the five-year Peace Corps curriculum at Western Michigan University, which includes two years of overseas duty as part of the degree requirements. Direct arrangements would be made with slum schools in all the major cities for the placement of teams of student-teachers who would serve the teachers and children there as tutors, assistants, apprentices, and recreation leaders for three to six months at a time.

In other words, starting from a base in a concern for the total development of each teacher, the university or school of education would work with him to put together an individual program of experience and study that placed a major responsibility on the student himself for choice and decision about the content of his own education. His preparation might take four years or five, depending on the length of time that seemed appropriate for the various stretches of work and study. His experience in preparation would naturally include direct work with children in subjects that he had mastered at a respectable intellectual level.

But that kind of experience could start even before college, when the teacher-candidate was in high school, through tutoring assignments in nearby elementary schools after hours, or through experience in leading seminars, discussions, and tutorials in the high school, provided his talents had developed sufficiently in that direction. He would also be given the chance to teach his peers in his university classes as well as to share in the development of new courses in collaboration with the faculty, using materials from his own research and field work experience. It would be an education in which everyone taught everyone else, since, in a reformed program of teacher education, the major part of the instruction would be through student-run seminars, tutorials, independent study, and discussion. How else could a teacher learn what it means to teach?

Students of foreign language and of foreign cultures would travel abroad for their field periods, and new international centers would be started on a number of campuses to which would be invited foreign students and foreign teachers in large numbers for the express purpose of joining in the teacher-preparation programs. Foreign and American students would work in teams, preparing, in the case of Latin American students for example, to work together for voluntary service in Latin America and in the United States. Soviet and Eastern European students could be invited to attend the international centers to act as teaching assistants in foreign languages and literature, and to prepare for volunteer service both here and at home.

THE first step toward the larger support of teacher education has already been taken by President Johnson in legislation proposed for recruiting experienced teachers for work in deprived areas, for financing experimental projects in teacher education, and for financing the education of teachers through national and state fellowships. If the invitation from Congress and the President to experiment in teacher education were taken up by the colleges and universities, and a national program of reform of the present system were to begin through such experiments, a large-scale attack on the problem would then find its support in the power of the social changes now moving through the world of the poor and the deprived. The intention of the President and his Administration is very clear. The President aims to develop the pent-up resources of the American people through a continually expanding program of education, and what we have seen this last year is just a beginning. Educational expansion can go only as far as the teachers can take it.

What becomes of what has been so highly regarded as the major problem of the education of teachers, the problem of their certification? It slips back into its rightful place as a technical matter connected with record-keeping. There is no reason why students preparing to become teachers should not enjoy serious and sustained work in the history, psychology, and philosophy of education, and learn something about its methods by work-study programs and practice-teaching in Venezuela, Iran, Bakersfield, or Selma. There is no reason why responsible universities and colleges cannot bestow the correct number of credits on their students for work in these fields when it satisfies the requirements of honesty, integrity, intellectual achievement, and educational experience. There is no reason why we cannot begin again, with bigger conceptions than we have ever had in our history, the historical task of raising the level of democratic society by raising the level of its education.

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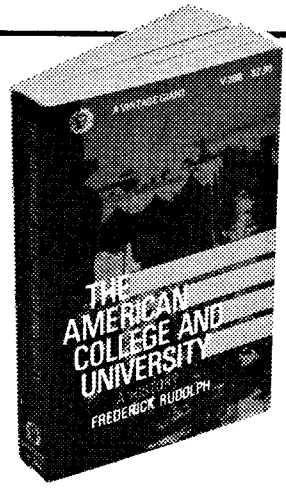

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Engineering

Continued from page 74

gramed control of machines and processes. Now, far more sophisticated uses of the computer are being developed. Not only are they being used to solve engineering design problems, but they can be programed to make the most of these designs in terms of such variables as weight, strength, and cost—automatically.

Beyond this, a whole new field of enormous potential is developing in which the computer is harnessed to simulate complex systems, and solve the problems of those systems — problems that could not even be stated until the systems approach was developed, and many of which could not be solved without the aid of today's sophisticated "second-generation" computers. Already systems engineers are looking ahead to third- and fourth-generation computers of even greater speed and versatility.

The rising tide of new knowledge will bring unprecedented opportunities, but it will bring unprecedented problems as well. One problem will be the rapid obsolescence of machines and processes; but far more serious will be the threat of obsolescence of men at every level.

In chemicals, electronics, and the space industry, the obsolescence of engineers and even of scientists is already serious. In other industries, where the tide of new knowledge is only beginning to be felt, the problem is not yet clearly recognized. But my prediction is this: *Within a decade, the obsolescence of skilled, technical, and scientific manpower will be recognized as industry's most pressing problem.*

There are several immediate steps that should be taken. At the company level, engineers should be used as engineers, or moved upward into supervisory or management positions; they should not be used as technicians or draftsmen. In-plant or job-oriented training programs should be expanded and improved so that more employees can be updated and upgraded to cope with problems of operation and maintenance.

Industry and education should cooperate to increase the number and quality of two-year technical institutes to provide large numbers of technicians and engineers' assistants.

Companies should continue to improve their orientation programs for newly hired engineering graduates. Once oriented toward the particular needs of the company and the department, the "new breed" of engineer will be a triple-threat man—able to understand the principles behind new discoveries, able to apply the tools of advanced mathematics and the research method, and motivated to continue learning.

But these moves will satisfy only a part of the need. As we look at today's knowledge output, and project the trend lines into the Seventies, the conclusion is inescapable that even today's four-year graduate will be unable to maintain a leadership position in his profession. The tidal wave of new knowledge will be too great; the pace of technological change too swift. Companies that generate or use such knowledge will need to back the four-year graduate with increasing numbers of engineers who have had *much* more science, *much* more mathematics, and *much* more experience working with senior scientists and engineers from a variety of fields; in short, we will need *many* more engineers with advanced degrees.

We began to face up to this problem several years ago at Case and our output of Ph.D.s in engineering has risen from ten in 1960 to thirty in June 1965, and the trend is certain to continue upward. We have found, however, that a graduate program cannot simply be superimposed upon the undergraduate program. The two must be highly integrated parts of an educational whole. The costs are high, but the benefits are great.

To enroll satisfactory numbers of graduate students the faculty must be outstanding, the educational program challenging and exciting, and the environment conducive to growth. This qualitative improvement attracts superior undergraduates, and the undergraduate program is enriched by the feedback from the graduate program. Thus, by pursuing the goal of graduating more Ph.D.s we are also increasing the excellence of our whole educational program.

Despite the magnitude of the changes that have taken place in engineering education in the past eighteen years, there are many who believe that even these measures will be insufficient by the early Seventies. I am one of this number. I subscribe to the prediction recently made by one of this country's leading scientists that by the mid-Seventies the average engineer will have to spend the equivalent of one day per week in some kind of formal education, and the average Ph.D. in science or engineering will have to re-earn his degree every six or seven years to keep abreast of his field.

Even if this prediction is 50 per cent in error, continuing education is a problem for which satisfactory solutions must be found in the decade ahead.

There are three other problem areas that concern me deeply, partly because of their importance, partly because I feel that we have failed in our efforts to find solutions. First, we in education have not yet come to grips with the problem of motivation. How can we reinforce, as well as channel, the drive to learn? How can we enhance the desire for accomplishment and professional excellence?

Second, we have not yet learned how to recognize and develop creativity. It seems to me that in our admissions policies, our educational programs, and our judgments of performance we are still too narrowly oriented toward demonstrated academic performance—the numbers game—so much so that the creative individual is likely to be ignored or penalized, and the "intelligent" plodder applauded and rewarded. The problem is difficult, but what a challenge! If there is ever to be a "magic wand" in the hard world of reality, that wand will be creativity.

Third, I am concerned about the slow rate of progress the educational community has made in developing new and better *methods of teaching*. The statement is often made these days that education is in a ferment of change, and to a degree it is true. The growing involvement of undergraduates in research, the rise of the interdisciplinary research centers; the use of new aids such as the teaching machine; the use of new tools such as the computer—all of these represent radical advances in teaching. But innovation is falling dangerously behind need. New knowledge is accumulating

at an accelerating rate, far faster than our ability to organize it and teach it.

We need new and faster methods of storing and retrieving knowledge, of abstracting and organizing knowledge, and of applying knowledge to the solution of problems. But more urgently, we need better teaching aids and better methods for imparting knowledge to the student, and improving the student-teacher relationship.

Work loads on the college student are already approaching practical limits. Graduate study is a partial answer; continuing education is a partial answer; but for a solution we must look to a methods breakthrough that will increase to a marked degree the effectiveness of the educational process.

At times problems such as these seem unsolvable, the costs unbearable, and the goals unreachable. But in my years as a college president, I have come to have an abiding faith in the educational community and in the individuals, corporations, foundations and governmental agencies which support it.

As the explosive power of atomic fusion will surely be controlled and harnessed for peaceful purposes, so I believe the power of the knowledge explosion will be harnessed to the good of mankind.

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White Ghetto

Continued from page 85

the number of teachers in each direction from six to twelve and the duration of the exchange from three to six weeks. The orientation period for the teachers will be extended and a series of informal get-togethers will precede the start of the actual exchange. More of the New York teachers will be encouraged to live in Darien since the informal out-of-school associations with other Darien school personnel and parents were considered both valuable and enjoyable. An attempt will also be made to extend all phases of the student exchanges with New York. An increase in the number of visits of Darien students to city schools is contemplated and in the visits of New York students to Darien, plans will be made to include many more Darien youth in activities with the visitors than was done this past year.

A book exhibit, including works by Negro authors, histories of the Negro race and culture, and books on the contribution of Negroes to American life, has been prepared during the summer for circulation throughout the Darien schools this fall.

It is too early to evaluate the impact of the Civil Rights Education program on the attitudes of Darien's youth and there is little doubt that the town will remain for the foreseeable future an all-white middle-class community. Darien has initiated, however, a systematic attempt to change the racial attitudes of its young people. As Dr. John H. Fischer, Head of Columbia University's Teachers College and former Superintendent of Schools in Baltimore, Maryland, wrote of the Darien venture, "Negro Americans will never become part of the mainstream of American life unless specific, deliberate steps are taken toward that end. And, because in virtually every community and at every level of government, the white group has effective control, it is through white initiative, in most cases, that the necessary corrective action must begin."

—Kwok-Ying Fung.

Clifford Hawley from High School of Commerce in Manhattan with Darien Superintendent Coffin and parents at teacher exchange tea.

How Not to Make a Model In a Bottle in a Bar in Ithaca

By Robert Huff

WHEN I am stiff enough to swing
I'll crack that flask. I'll sow
The amber cornered in my hand
Until the pieces grow

Into its golden likeness and
The measure starts to flow.
When light's contrived on everything
In miniature, we'll row

Easily as the oar locks sing
(We and our wake aglow!)
Into the shining neck of it
To wander, for it's so

That Beauty may in bottles fit,
But making her is, oh,
Like something else. Once in the drift,
Where would you want to go?

No Shortcut

Continued from page 39

attacked the intelligentsia as a neo-bourgeois stratum using the labor movement for its own elevation. Lenin's invective against the intelligentsia served him to ward off any such insinuations as might be directed against him by those gadflies.

There was also something else which he had to cover up with his attacks against his own social group. It was, paradoxically, the fact that he was actually the most outspoken champion of the intelligentsia which he was wont to deprecate in his journalistic outbursts. In his *What Is to Be Done?*—the bible of Bolshevism at its outset—he declared that in the struggle against their employers the manual workers, when left to themselves, were unable to rise above the trade-union concept of higher wages and shorter hours, and that socialist ideas were introduced into the labor movement by intellectuals coming from the middle class. Seemingly a purely theoretical statement, in its implications it anticipated the domination of the neo-bourgeois class of office-holders and managers—the men of education—over the uneducated which, as a result of the Bolshevik Revolution, was to be established within the entire Communist orbit.

The sufferings that the masses had to endure in the wake of the Bolshevik Revolution do not seem to have greatly affected Lenin and his close associates. Possessed by their passion for power, they took lightly the disappointments of the common man who hoped the Revolution would better his lot. In Lenin's opinion, "the victory of the workers was impossible without sacrifices, without a temporary worsening of their situation." To justify that "temporary worsening," Lenin compared the revolution with "birth pains," insisting that no woman would refuse to have children because of those pains. He forgot that a woman's birth pains are really "temporary," while the "temporariness" of his revolution was a matter of decades during which—except for the revolutionary "obstetricians"—most of its alleged beneficiaries died in misery and despair. Would any woman consent to give birth if she knew that the birth pains would last for years and years without interruption and that most likely she would die in the process?

Professor Ulam is mistaken when he writes: "Had the Russian Marxists [at the turn of the century] been able to acquiesce in the full implications of their doctrine [*i.e.*, only after many decades would Russia be ready for a socialist revolution] it is safe to say that none of them would have entered the arduous path of the revolutionary. They were not sacrificing their lives . . . just so

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—Pix.

Bolshevik soldiers in Petrograd in 1917—prolonged "birth pains."

that their country would become merely another constitutional monarchy or bourgeois republic, which they loathed scarcely less than their native absolutism and bureaucracy." The fact is that in 1905, except for Leon Trotsky and Parvus, none of the Russian Marxists was dreaming of a socialist revolution in Russia (or even of a socialist revolution in Western Europe). The most that they expected from a victorious upheaval was a constitutional monarchy, British style, or a democratic republic, French style. They would have even accepted a semiconstitutional monarchy, German or Austrian style, as long as they could have a chance to engage in legal political and trade-union activities on the order of the giant German and Austrian social-democratic parties, which they admired.

In this connection it must be noted that even before Trotsky came out with the concept of a "permanent revolution," visualizing a "proletarian dictatorship" as a result of the 1905 revolution, Lenin had launched the postulate of a "democratic dictatorship of the proletariat and the peasantry." The idea behind this somewhat odd-sounding slogan was the assumption that a bourgeois-democratic revolution—Lenin did not expect a revolution in 1905 to assume a socialist character—would soon succumb to the blows of a reactionary counter-revolution, as did all the revolutions of 1848, if mild bourgeois liberals were permitted to take power. Hence, he concluded that it would be necessary to establish a government manned by Marxist representatives of the workers and Socialist Revolutionary (neo-Populist) representatives of the peasantry. That régime would have to expropriate the big land-owners, thus breaking the backbone of czarism, and force the industrial capitalists to make substantial concessions to the workers, thus securing the support of the working class. This, in Lenin's opinion, would guarantee the survival of the bourgeois-democratic revolution (1905). There is not a word about it in Professor Ulam's book.

Nor is the author at his best when he writes about the Russian Civil War (1918-20). He says that "Lenin loyally defended Trotsky against the intrigues of Stalin and others." Trotsky was certainly too great an asset at that time to be thrown to the envious wolves and hyenas. But the fact is that Stalin had the audacity to write "disregard this order" on written commands sent to the front by the Commissar of War, who was allegedly loyally defended by Lenin. In wartime this was a capital crime; yet Stalin got away with it, and those on the inside suspected that he was put up to it by Lenin himself. Despite—or perhaps because—of his admiration for Russia's greatest orator, most brilliant journalist, and most energetic man of action, Lenin apparently suspected Trotsky of Napoleonic ambitions.

Trotsky's most bitter enemies on the extreme left do not come off very well in the book. Without quoting any sources at all, the author calls Zheleznyakov—the anarchist sailor whom Lenin had used as a "bouncer" for dispersing the Constituent Assembly—"the head of an armed gang of hooligans who robbed and kidnaped inhabitants of Petrograd." Lenin would certainly not have had this "glorious task performed by a man with such a stain attached to his name. To be sure, there were gangsters among the Russian anarchists, but probably not more than there are grafters among regular politicians in other countries.

Power and the Soviet Elite, a collection of essays by Boris Nicolaevsky, one of the foremost students of Russia's revolutionary movements, deals with the intraparty struggles that followed upon the defeat of the Trotsky opposition and the establishment of Stalin's domain. Struggles which culminated in the extermination of the entire Bolshevik Old Guard by Stalin (who himself was probably "bumped off" by the last batch slated by him for liquidation) and which continued after Stalin's death. The stories told by Mr. Nicolaevsky are a fitting continuation to Professor Ulam's epic of the Father of Bolshevism

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(Continued on page 98)

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(Continued from page 97)

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KINGSLEY DOUBLE-CROSTIC NO. 1650

Reg. U.S. Patent Office

By Doris Nash Wortman

DEFINITIONS	WORDS
A. Describing an active person (comp.)	25 199 95 142 165 35 56 186 81
B. Instrument for recording work done by a muscle, or group of muscles.	172 85 164 28 73 37 87 106 139
C. The piece of planted "evidence" in Othello.	82 32 163 101 171 189 24 117 75 14 122 6
D. Old saw, born in Maine, became British subject, knighted by Queen Victoria for his many inventions (1840-1916).	38 170 156 23 193
E. American Colonial capital named for English princess, 1694, who became queen later.	207 153 94 13 144 2 21 162 202
F. Place to which Hamlet unkindly told Ophelia to go.	108 88 52 70 76 125 190
G. Conical float moored to the bottom, marking a channel (2 wds.)	72 116 86 55 208 42 77
H. In advance of a set time.	121 66 7 137 115 48 166 54 130 150
I. States positively.	151 100 149 179 141 58 44
J. One who gives himself up to loafing and daydreaming. (comp.)	203 143 92 212 34 67 135 114 131 8
K. Slackenings, of speed, effort, moral earnestness, etc.	213 111 187 53 5 103 47 4
L. Ruling principle of the self-imposed British program just after World War II.	29 105 127 74 183 15 71 209 194
M. Disagree in opinion or sentiment.	132 210 96 12 63 113
N. Device for throwing sound downward, as louver boards in a belfry (French; comp.)	175 205 61 196 148 36 104 184
O. A small object, carved in wood, ivory, etc., pierced with holes, which form part of Japanese costume and decorative art.	65 126 30 89 57 118 140
P. Giving a new, permanent color to.	27 168 145 112 161 22
Q. Large metallic containers used on whalers or on shore for rendering blubber (comp.)	138 31 80 174 50 3 124
R. Mild oath traditionally connected with small boys (2 wds.)	18 102 1 60 195 99 134 11 90
S. Specifying the musical *change* apparent to the eye but not usually to the *ear*.	167 176 110 79 160 59 19 154 128 45
T. A sort of fastening for clothes, in the form of a guarded clasp (2 wds.)	16 10 211 197 109 180 181 93 33
U. Three words for *shouldn't*.	107 173 62 178 133 43 159 185 157 20
V. Gerald Durrell's Guiana opossums *(Three Tickets to Adventure)*.	51 169 91 198 41 192
W. Composer of *La Marseillaise*, 1792 (full name).	182 97 201 129 46 40 177 69 78 84 26 119 9
X. Type of beautiful lacquered folding Chinese screen.	17 64 191 200 158 39 136 123 120 146
Y. In all places.	83 68 206 49 204 152 188 155 98 147

DIRECTIONS

To solve this puzzle you must guess twenty-odd WORDS, the definitions of which are given in the column headed DEFINITIONS. Alongside each definition, there is a row of dashes—one for each letter in the required word. When you have guessed a word, write it on the dashes, and also write each letter in the correspondingly numbered square of the puzzle diagram . . . When the squares are all filled in, you will find that you have completed a quotation from some published work. If read up and down, the letters in the diagram have no meaning . . . Black squares indicate ends of words; if there is no black square at the right side of the diagram, the word carries over to the next line . . . When all the WORDS are filled in, their initial letters spell the name of the author and the title of the piece from which the quotation has been taken. Of great help to the solver are this acrostic feature and the relative shapes of words in the diagram as they develop. Authority for spellings and definitions is Webster's New International Dictionary, Second and Third Editions.

	1 R	2 E	3 Q	4 K		5 K	6 C		7 H	8 J	9 W	10 T	11 R	_	12 M	13 E
14 C	15 L		16 T	17 X	18 R	19 S	20 U	21 E	22 P	23 D	24 C	25 A	26 W		27 P	28 B
	29 L		30 O	31 Q	32 C	33 T	34 J	35 A	36 N	37 B	38 D	39 X	40 W	41 V	42 G	43 U
	44 I	45 S	46 W	47 K	48 H		49 Y	50 Q	51 V	52 F	53 K		54 H	55 G	56 A	57 O
58 I		59 S	60 R		61 N	62 U	63 M		64 X	65 O	66 H		67 J	68 Y	69 W	70 F
71 L	72 G	73 B		74 L	75 C	76 F	77 G		78 W	79 S	80 Q		81 A	82 C	83 Y	84 W
85 B		86 G	87 B	88 F	89 O	90 R	91 V	92 J	93 T	94 E	95 A		96 M	97 W	98 Y	99 R
100 I		101 C	102 R	103 K	104 N		105 L	106 B	107 U	108 F		109 T	110 S	111 K	112 P	113 M
	114 J	115 H	116 G	117 C	118 O	119 W	120 X		121 H	122 C	123 X	124 Q		125 F	126 O	127 L
128 S	129 W	130 H	131 J	132 M		133 U	134 R		135 J	136 X	137 H	138 Q	139 B	140 O	141 I	
142 A	143 J	144 E	145 P	146 X	147 Y	148 N	149 I		150 H	151 I	152 Y	153 E		154 S	155 Y	156 D
157 U		158 X	159 U	160 S	161 P	162 E	163 C	164 B		165 A	166 H	167 S	168 P		169 V	170 D
171 C	172 B		173 U	174 Q		175 N	176 S	177 W		178 U	179 I	180 T		181 T	182 W	183 L
184 N	185 U	186 A		187 K	188 Y	189 C	190 F	191 X	192 V		193 D	194 L	195 R	196 N	197 T	198 V
199 A	200 X	201 W	202 E	203 J	204 Y		205 N	206 Y	207 E	208 G	209 L	210 M	211 T	212 J	213 K	

Solution of last week's Double-Crostic will be found on page 18 of this issue.

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1966 Thunderbird Town Landau with new formal roofline

The Thunderbird Touch: Stereo Tape at your fingertips...

Listen! Thunderbird for 1966 has a new, easy-to-use Stereo Tape player. This unique four-speaker system plays over 70 minutes of music on instant-change snap-in, snap-out tape cartridges. No rewinding. Completely automatic! Other new personal touches: Thunderbird's new Highway Pilot Control option—on the steering wheel—lets you set, retard, and resume your desired cruising speed with just the touch of a finger. Plus a new overhead Safety-Convenience push button panel on Town models; a more powerful standard V-8 or 428-cubic-inch V-8 option. And, the incomparable styling, engineering and craftsmanship that have made this car a classic in its own time.

Thunderbird

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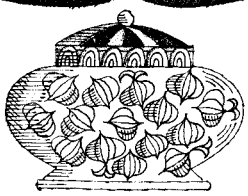
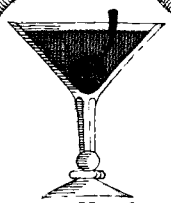
For people who can't wait until New Year's Eve...



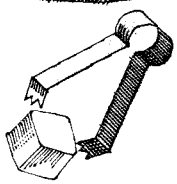
"Know Your Onions" Day

Good day to throw abandon to the wind —also onion into empty glass. (Add gin and Cinzano *dry* Vermouth.)



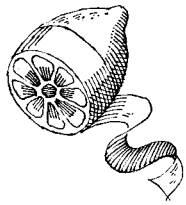
"Treat a Manhattan Sweet" Day

Order Manhattan with Cinzano *sweet* Vermouth. Buy drink for everyone who pronounces Cinzano correctly (*Chin*-Zano)!



"Be Nice to Ice" Day

Great warm weather celebration. Pour Cinzano *sweet* Vermouth over ice. Sip. Sip. Hooray!

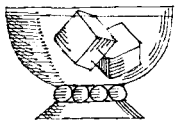


"Teach a yellow Lemon Courage" Day

For those who missed "Know Your Onions" Day. (Same fun—only with lemon peel.)

"Take an Olive to Lunch" Day

Or brunch. Or dinner. Who cares? (As long as it goes with imported *Cinzano* Vermouth.)



NATIONAL "GIN-ZANO" DAY

You're in luck. *Today* is National "Gin-Zano" Day! (Cinzano makes *any* celebration complete.)

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When you mix with CinZano you mix with the best

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